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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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EDITORIALLY SPEAKING

FALSE PRETENSES

Time was when schools had definite and limited functions. Beyond attempting to give control over the tools of learning, their efforts did not go. Children were disciplined, it is true, not for general character training but merely in order that the work of the school might go on. Teachers occupied a humble place in the community. They were employees and employees of a not very dignified sort at that.

Now all is changed. The functions of the school compass almost every phase of child experience—being tucked into bed after you have said your prayers is one notable exception, or is it? We state the aims of education in terms of contemporary social life and no important phase is passed over. Home membership, vocational efficiency, good citizenship, worthy use of leisure, expression of the spirit of good will are now current as phrases in which to set forth the purposes of the school. The expansion of the field of recognized activities of the school has been enormous.

A grave danger is involved. The American public tends to be lulled into a false sense of security. If the school is such a wonderful institution, able to care for every need of Johnny's development, why worry? Let the school look after him. Fathers and mothers are thus freed of troublesome responsibility and attain the freedom to come and go without let or hindrance.

The difficulty is, as everybody who gives even a few moments of thought to the matter knows, that Johnny's education is already well advanced when he comes to school. The more fundamental of his habits and attitudes—the ground work of his character—have already been established. Long before he began to talk, Johnny was observing, listening, and learning to act. Nothing that the school can do afterward will entirely erase the marks of these early influences.

Not only so. The school cannot wisely assume responsibility for the whole round of the child's experience after he reaches school age. The environment provided by the school is highly organized and controlled, much more so than the normal environment outside. Adjustment of one's personality to the forces of a school environment does not in itself guarantee adjustment elsewhere. In a word, it is easy to claim for schools more than they can actually perform.

Doing so will inevitably lead to a violent reaction. At present the faith of the vast majority of Americans in their schools

seems to be well-nigh perfect. It will not necessarily remain so. Educators should beware of encouraging expectations that cannot reasonably be expected to be fulfilled. Above all, parents should not be invited—or permitted—to lay upon the schools the burden of responsibilities that they and they alone can discharge.

THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL

The very interesting and valuable Yearbook on the Curriculum that was recently published by the National Society for the Study of Education devotes two lines to the problem of effective presentation of the curriculum to teachers through properly written courses of study as contrasted with several hundred pages of discussion as to how the curriculum itself should be determined. No doubt it is best to attend to one thing at a time. The fact remains, however, that all supervisors everywhere are obliged to interpret the best they know about the curriculum through forms of expression that have almost no scientific validation. Once you have decided that a certain curriculum is the right one for a school, how do you set about getting it into operation?

J. F. H.

THE OPTIMISM IN DEWEY'S PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

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One of the most optimistic thinkers in education today is John Dewey. He has presented an educational philosophy suited to the changed and changing conditions of modern social life. Social efficiency and not mere knowledge for its own sake is his conception of the aim of the school. Furthermore, this social efficiency must come through actual participation in the activities of a social institution, the school. Dewey believes that the activities of the school should be connected with those of real life in order that the child may gain an intelligent and sympathetic understanding of the world in which he lives. In other words, education is life and not a preparation for life. "If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy, and would also provide the best possible guarantee of learning needed in the future, transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves."[1]

Dewey's interpretation of the school is a place where children are working rather than listening, learning life by living life, and understanding social institutions by actually studying them as human experiences. The virtues of the school should be learning by doing, and the development of originality and initiative. "The virtues of the school of the past were too much the colorless negative qualities of obedience, docility, and submission. These are but a poor preparation for social efficiency or for democratic life and government."[2] Thus, by contrasting the modern school influenced by Dewey's philosophy and the

[1] Dewey, *Schools of Tomorrow*, p. 5.
[2] Cubberley, *Introduction to the Study of Education*, p. 159.

school of the past, we can see most encouraging hopes for education as a factor in social evolution.

Dewey's philosophy is encouraging to the teacher in that it assumes that the mind is not naturally averse to learning. Learning is a necessary incident of dealing with real situations. Some existing methods of instruction give evidence in support of a belief that the mind is opposed to learning. Subject matter is something to be imposed from without upon the child, rather than something he is going after to solve his problem, or to carry on an activity in which he is already engaged. In many cases teachers have to resort to all sorts of devices and tricks of the trade to get children to learn. The use of artificial incentives, bribes, fear, and coercion makes the life of the teacher anything but a joyous one. No wonder vacations are anticipated with real joy—a relief from the drudgery of "teaching school!" No wonder children hate school; an unfortunate conflict between teacher and pupil is almost universal!

Two apparently conflicting aims of life are revealed in the school today, hedonism and energism. According to the former, the aim of life is joy and happiness, whereas the latter states the aim of life in terms of achievement. The conflict between interest and effort in education is a manifestation of these two opposing theories: soft pedagogy, on the one hand, and the disciplinary or effort theory on the other. Dewey's philosophy reconciles these two theories. They are mutually inclusive for there is no abiding happiness without achievement, and great achievements always lead to enjoyment and happiness. Dewey's theory of interest and effort displaces irksomeness by means of joy *of* the achievement and *in* the achievement. Children should realize joy in the process as well as in the result. There is no conflict between interest and effort. As a matter of fact, we do not put forth much effort in an activity unless we are vitally interested in that activity. We can do best the things we enjoy doing and we enjoy doing the things we can do best.

The soft pedagogy and so-called effort theory are both intellectually and morally harmful. Both theories mean scattered attention, a divided self, and the corresponding disintegration of character. Furthermore, in both cases we have external mechanical attention to a task which is accompanied by random mind-wandering along the lines of the pleasureable or away from pain or fear. The principle of interest developed by Dewey is "the principle of the recognized identity of the fact to be learned or the action proposed with the growing self; . . . it lies in the direction of the agent's own growth, and is, therefore, imperiously demanded, if the agent is to be himself. Let this condition of identification once be secured, and we have neither to appeal to sheer strength of will, nor to occupy ourselves with making things interesting."[3]

This principle of interest gives us a firm basis upon which to build. It recognizes that there are certain powers within the child urgent for development. "Adequately to act upon these impulses involves seriousness, absorption, and definiteness of purpose; it results in formation of steadiness and persistent habit in the service of worthy ends."[4]

Dewey's philosophy makes a positive contribution in emphasizing the importance of the purposeful act in the educative process. The utilization of purpose raises teaching from the mechanical treadmill exercises to the highest of the arts—the

[3] Dewey, *Interest and Effort in Education*, p. 7.
[4] Ibid, p. 15.

art of guiding the development of a human life. Purpose gives meaning and direction to an activity. An activity without purpose is meaningless and mechanical. According to Kilpatrick, "purpose has three functions: it guides the activity, determines the end, and furnishes its own motive, drive, or inner urge."

The only way we can consciously improve an activity is to make it more meaningful, and since the meaning of an activity depends upon its purpose, then the process of education should consist in developing socially desirable and worthy purposes in children in order that they may extend and improve their individual and coöperative activities. The unit of a worthy life is purpose, a wholehearted dominating purpose that guides life's activities and furnishes its own drive. Therefore, if we want better lives out of children, then we should accept Dewey's philosophy and make life more meaningful to them, and this can be done only by inculcating socially desirable purposes in them and developing their ability to choose worthy purposes.

If the aim of teaching is to impart facts and information, then the whole job is a hopeless one; there remains little of permanent value. Facts as such never become our permanent possession unless we constantly use them, and since the learner can never constantly use all the facts he acquires, how useless seem all our efforts and labors! Dewey's philosophy gives us a ray of hope and a feeling of optimism toward our task. The center of gravity is shifted from facts, and mere subject matter, to the child. "The child becomes the sun about which the appliances of education revolve, he is the center about which they are organized."[5] The attitude of the learner is the big factor in any learning process, and the utilization of purpose emphasizes the importance of this factor.

Any child during an educative experience learns not merely the one thing he is supposed to be engaged in, say a lesson in multiplication, but is also, at the same time, learning, or rather forming attitudes, tastes, predispositions, appreciations, and ideals. The mere facts he is learning will very likely be temporary, while the attitudes are relatively permanent. Many of the facts we learned in the elementary and secondary school we have forgotten, but the attitudes and predispositions we acquired then have been more or less permanent and determined, in a large measure, what we are today. In other words, the attitudes, appreciations and ideals our students are forming are the really permanent effects of our teaching. According to Dewey, "A child may externally be entirely occupied with mastering the multiplication table, and be able to reproduce that table when asked to do so by his teacher. The teacher may congratulate himself that the child has been exercising his will power so as to form right habits. Not so, unless right habit be identified with this ability to show certain results when required. The question of educative training has not been touched until we know what the child has been internally occupied with, what the predominating direction of his attention, his feelings, his disposition has been while he has been engaged upon this task."[6] Unless instruction in a subject touches sources of appreciation and captures the imagination, its value is extremely doubtful. An appreciation of any subject has its influence in determining our conception as to what things are really worth while.

Since we cannot solve the problems of life in advance, how can we prepare chil-

[5] Dewey, *School and Society*, p. 51.
[6] Dewey, *Interest and Effort*, p. 8.

dren for an adult life that we know will be different in many major respects from the present adult life? In the solution of this problem Dewey's philosophy is most encouraging. We can equip our pupils with proper attitudes and ideals so that they may have a proper sense of values when they are called upon to make their own decisions and solve their problems as adults. As long as we are teaching mere facts and skills we are spinning sand, but when we consciously attempt to influence desirable attitudes, tastes, and appreciations, then, we are building character. According to Kilpatrick, children in school are forming attitudes of one sort or the other. Whether we like it or not, it cannot be avoided. It is going on all the time that learning is taking place. Pupils are all the time forming attitudes in regard to subject matter, school, teacher, themselves, other pupils, and ways of doing things. That they are developing attitudes is inevitable; but what kind are they forming? Here is the great opportunity for the teacher to make his real contribution, a contribution that will be permanent.

Equality of opportunity is another encouraging factor in the philosophy of Dewey. "We have set up the notion of mind at large, of intellectual method that is the same for all. Then we regard individuals as differing in the quantity of mind with which they are charged. Ordinary persons are then expected to be ordinary. Only the exceptional are allowed to have originality. The measure of difference between the average student and the genius is a measure of the absence of originality in the former. *But this notion of mind in general is a fiction.* How one person's abilities compare in quantity with those of another is none of the teacher's business. It is irrelevant to his work. *What is required is that every individual shall have opportunities to employ his own powers in activities that have meaning.*" [7] This means that we as teachers can secure more originality even by the conventional standard than now develops. "Imposing an alleged uniform general method upon everybody breeds mediocrity in all but the very exceptional. And measuring originality by deviation from the mass breeds eccentricity in them."

This view makes for a variety of possible values inherent in any subject, and different pupils may get very different results as to the kinds of value that are secured. This is most encouraging in regard to the problem of individual differences. Bode illustrates this in the following manner: "To one pupil the abiding result after a study of Caesar's wars from Latin texts may be a taste for language; to another it may be an interest in strategy and tactics; to a third, a sense of the superiority of civilized man in his unswerving devotion to a purpose." [8]

In conclusion, I shall summarize the main points in this paper as evidence of the optimism of John Dewey's philosophy of education.

1. The identification of education with life: the child should not lead two distinct lives, one in school, the other outside.
2. The mind is not naturally averse to learning.
3. There is no conflict between interest and effort; they are mutually inclusive.
4. The importance of utilizing purposeful activity in the educative process.
5. The importance and permanence of attitudes, tastes, appreciations, and ideals.
6. The importance of recognizing individual differences and equality of opportunity.
7. The evils of over-standardization.

[7] Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, pp. 202-203.
[8] Bode, *Fundamentals of Education*, p. 15.

THE EFFECT OF HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING UPON THE QUALITY OF WORK OF SUPERIOR CHILDREN

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Although many arguments have been advanced both for and against the grouping of children in school on the basis of mental ages and intelligence quotients, very little evidence in the way of quantitative results has been presented in favor of either view. That superior pupils in the usual class, with its wide range of intellect, do a quality of work in comparison with their capacity that is inferior to that of the less gifted pupils has been repeatedly demonstrated. That this condition is due to a lack of adequate stimulation when a few gifted pupils are in a class with many pupils of average and inferior intelligence has been frequently asserted and is probably true. But even when superior and less gifted pupils have been grouped into relatively homogeneous classes within the same school, the less gifted have been found to surpass the superior pupils in both quality of work and actual gain. This, too, may have been due to a lack of adequate stimulation—to too simple a curriculum content for the superior pupils.

Any comparison of the quality of work of superior and less gifted pupils under the usual conditions of instruction tells us little, however, of what the quality of work of the superior pupils might be under more favorable conditions of instruction for them. That either the less gifted or the superior pupils actually do better work when they are taught in homogeneous classes but under the usual conditions of instruction than when they are taught in the same class, may be more of a hope than a fact. It is the purpose of the present study to show the extent to which various methods of classifying superior pupils affect the quality of their work when other conditions of instruction are similar.

In a large city of the Middle West, the superior pupils have for several years been assembled semi-annually from several schools into an alpha class. In each case this has been done on the basis of mental tests at the end of the sixth grade. During the seventh and eighth grades they have been kept together as a class and placed in charge of a competent teacher. For this class the curriculum has been what is commonly called an enriched one. This, however, does not imply any other variation than that the pupils have been encouraged to read more widely than is done in the usual class.

The only impartial measures of the success of the project so far available have been the opinions of the high school teachers who have had these pupils in their classes. The teachers in the high school to which the pupils of the alpha classes have gone at the end of the eighth grade have been anything but enthusiastic regarding the outcome of the project. In the opinion of the high school faculty the alpha pupils are too young, too immature, to do the work of the high school successfully. In fact, the project is looked upon as a failure that cannot be abandoned too quickly. But are these pupils less mature than superior eighth-grade pupils of the same school system not in the alpha class?

Do they actually do an inferior quality of work in the high school, as their teachers believe, or are the high school teachers unfavorably prejudiced toward the plan?

The last question cannot at present be answered. Comparable tests in the various phases of instruction in the secondary school are not yet available for its decision. School marks, of course, might be used. But these are too likely to be colored by the attitudes of the teachers. Besides, there is no basis for averaging and comparing the grades assigned in different subjects and by different teachers. Certainly not all the pupils take the same subjects, and, moreover, they are scattered among many different teachers. Although the quality of work of the alpha pupils while in the high school cannot be compared with that of similar pupils not previously grouped into alpha classes, such a comparison can be made in the elementary school. A series of mental tests and achievement scales[1] was given to all the pupils completing the eighth grade in this school system, thus making it feasible to compare the pupils of an alpha class in chronological age and in quality of work at the end of the eighth grade with other pupils similar in mental age and brightness but taught under the usual classroom conditions.

While only educational scales yielding comparable scores were employed, together with a group mental test in which the mental age norms for each of the scales had been determined, yet there were certain features inherent in the situation that necessitated a statistical procedure in treating the results that is anything but a straightforward one. In the first place, the pupils of the alpha class varied in mental ages from 15 years, 1 month, to more than 18 years. In intelligence quotients the pupils ranged from 120 to 154. Not only was a part of the class composed of boys and the other part of girls, but the proportion of boys and girls was unequal. In view of these conditions, any attempt at grouping the scores would at once render the results of doubtful value. To match individuals in the alpha class with similar pupils completing the eighth grade seemed the other alternative. But this also presented difficulties. Even in a school system with approximately 1400 children completing the eighth grade, it would be difficult to find pupils in the usual or composite classes who would bear a very close resemblance to the pupils of the alpha class in mental age, intelligence quotients, and sex. The attempt to do so gave a ridiculously small number of usable cases. In addition, two classes were made up of gifted pupils and of pupils of average or inferior intelligence in about equal proportions. To keep this group separate from the composite group of pupils of whom there were only from one to five gifted ones in any class, seemed highly advisable. Thus any attempts at comparisons of pupils similar in all respects but the kind of class they were in, seemed inadvisable.

One method still remained. The quality of work of pupils differing in both mental age and achievement could be rendered comparable by the use of some such ratio as the achievement quotient. But even though the achievement scores corresponding to each mental age had been determined for the educational scales used, the

[1] The Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, Examination A; Spelling Scale A of the Van Wagenen Spelling Scales; The Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale, Form 7; The Van Wagenen American History Information Scale R2; The Van Wagenen American History Thought Scale R2; The Posey-Van Wagenen Geography Information Scale R2; The Posey-Van Wagenen Geography Thought Scale R2; The Woody Arithmetic Scale R3 (Van Wagenen revision) for the fundamental operations; The Buckingham Scale for Arithmetic Problems, Form II, Division 3, with the C score method of scoring. For illustrations of the above scales see the author's *Teachers Manual for Using the Accomplishment Educational Scales.* Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

TABLE I—AVERAGES OF THE ARITHMETIC MEANS OF THE ACHIEVEMENT QUOTIENTS FOR EACH OF THE CORRESPONDING THREE MONTHS MENTAL AGE GROUPS

Class	Spelling	Reading	History Information	History Thought	Geography Information	Geography Thought	Arithmetic Fundamentals	Arithmetic Problems
Alpha girls	95.2	106.0	81.2	96.7	80.0	79.6	94.4	92.3
Mixed girls	97.4	101.8	81.8	94.3	77.5	80.8	90.6	95.4
Composite girls	99.0	98.1	78.8	92.7	80.0	82.2	89.1	97.7
Alpha boys	86.0	99.7	79.8	96.8	80.5	81.7	92.8	89
Mixed boys	95.3	99.5	80.9	98.5	77.0	80.6	82.5	88
Composite boys	94.1	99.6	80.7	95.2	81.1	83.7	89.8	98.4

accuracy of the correspondence at the upper levels—say above the mental age of 16—might be considered too questionable to draw any inferences from the findings.

To obviate this possible source of error a method was finally adopted of grouping the 26 pupils of the alpha class for whom complete records were available, the 35 pupils of the two mixed classes, and the 127 pupils of the composite classes into groups differing in mental age by three months. As no pupil in the alpha class had an intelligence quotient below 120, only pupils with intelligence quotients of 120 or above were included in either the mixed or composite group. The term "mixed" will be used to designate the pupils in the two classes made up of about equal proportions of superior and non-superior pupils, the term "composite" to designate the superior pupils in classes in which they formed a very small minority. The arithmetic means of the chronological ages and of the achievement quotients in each of the eight phases of instruction measured were then determined for each of the 12 mental age groups of pupils. These arithmetic means for the different mental age groups were then treated as if they were single measures and averaged for the corresponding groups for the three types of classes in order to obtain the final values. This procedure disregarded, of course, the number of cases within each mental age group instead of multiplying each mean by the number of cases in its group before averaging, as in determining the composite mean. The purpose in doing this was to eliminate whatever effect differences in mental ages might have upon the size of the achievement quotients, an effect that would, if present, vitiate the results, as there was a larger proportion of the alpha pupils with the higher mental ages than of either of the other types of classes.

In comparing the average achievement quotients of the three types of classes in the various phases of instruction, it should be kept in the mind that the achievement quotient is influenced by the pupil's entire career, hence even a very small difference as the result of the last two years in school is indicative of rather marked differences in tendencies. As the pupils were in the same school system, it is reasonably safe to assume that the average achievement quotients of the corresponding groups differed but slightly at the end of the sixth grade. Hence any differences found are likely to be due to the effect of the grouping of the pupils of the alpha class together during grades 7 and 8. In Table I are given the

TABLE II—AVERAGES OF THE ARITHMETIC MEANS OF THE ACHIEVEMENT QUOTIENTS FOR EACH OF THE CORRESPONDING THREE MONTHS MENTAL AGE GROUPS, FOR THOSE WITH THE LOWER MENTAL AGES AND THOSE WITH THE HIGHER MENTAL AGES

Class	Spelling		Reading		History Information		History Thought	
	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups
Alpha girls...	96.6	92.8	109.5	100.3	82	79.8	98.2	94.3
Mixed girls...	96.9	98.0	105.2	96.0	82.5	80.6	95.6	92.3
Composite girls.....	99.0	99.0	98.6	97.3	78.3	79.6	92.7	92.8
	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups
Alpha boys...		86.0		99.7		79.8		96.8
Mixed boys..		95.3		99.5		80.9		98.5
Composite boys.....	101.6	89.1	100.6	99.0	81.5	79.2	96.3	94.5
	Geography Information		Geography Thought		Arithmetic Fundamentals		Arithmetic Problems	
	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups
Alpha girls...	81.2	78.0	81.8	76.1	97.5	89.3	91.5	93.8
Mixed girls...	78.2	76.3	82.5	78.0	92.9	86.8	98.6	90
Composite girls.....	81.3	77.8	83.4	80.3	87.0	92.6	96.7	99.5
	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups
Alpha boys...		80.5		81.7		92.8		89
Mixed boys..		77.0		80.6		82.5		88
Composite boys.....	83.7	79.3	86.7	81.6	93.7	87.2	100.6	96.9

averages of the 12 arithmetic means for each phase of instruction measured. The differences are all fairly small.

Owing to the fact that the number of groups of pupils differing in mental age by not more than three months is small, there being only 12 such groups, the probable errors of the averages would necessarily be very large in comparison with the differences. For this reason the averages have been computed separately for those with the higher and those with the lower

mental ages to bring out any consistent tendencies that might be present. These averages are contained in Table II.

An examination of the data in Table I shows that the alpha girls surpassed the girls in the mixed group in reading, the thought phase of American history, range of information in geography, and in the fundamental operations of arithmetic. They surpassed those in the composite group in reading, in both the information and thought phase of American history, and in the fundamental operations of arithmetic. Among the boys, those in the alpha class surpassed those in the mixed classes in both phases of geography, in the fundamental operations of arithmetic, and possibly in reading, and surpassed those in the composite classes in the thought phase of American History and the fundamental operations of arithmetic. Except in spelling, in which the alpha pupils stood lowest, and in the fundamental operations of arithmetic, in which they stood highest, the variations among the achievement quotients are relatively small for the different types of classes. In arithmetic problems the pupils of the composite group surpassed those in the other two types of classes. In the thought phase of geography they also surpassed the others, while in the information phase of it they either equalled or surpassed them. Even these tendencies are not marked enough to show up consistently when the averages for the mentally older and mentally younger pupils as given separately in Table II are compared. In no phases of instruction are the differences marked enough and consistent enough to suggest any distinct advantage for any one of the three types of classes under the conditions of instruction which prevailed in this school system. On the whole the most marked tendency among the three types of classes seems to have been for spelling to be somewhat more neglected in the alpha class than in the other types and for the fundamental operations of arithmetic to receive somewhat greater emphasis.

Sex differences in quality of work seem less evident among the superior pupils in American history and the fundamental operations of arithmetic than is usually found among pupils in general. Nor are sex differences in these phases of instruction any more evident in the composite than in the alpha class. The quality of work of the pupils with the higher mental ages is somewhat lower in a larger proportion of cases than that of the pupils with the lower mental ages. This, however, may be due to inaccuracies of the achievement quotients for the higher mental ages. On the other hand, the inaccuracies are more likely to have minimized such differences as do exist. It is significant, however, that in the case of the girls the differences in quality of work of the two mental age groups are far less marked for the composite classes than for the alpha class. The exceptionally gifted pupils apparently did not fare so well in the alpha class as in the composite classes.

As it has been handled, one may well question, of course, that the alpha class has been a success. It must not be misinterpreted, however, that, because the alpha class shows no consistently marked superiority over the other types of classes, therefore ability grouping fails of its purpose. It is true that the alpha class pupils were provided with an enriched curriculum and wider reading, and that the effect of this does not show up in any higher achievement quotients in ranges of information in either American history or geography, nor does it show up in the thought phase of geography. Even in the thought phase of American history and reading it fails to show up consistently. Yet this does not argue against the alpha class nor against homo-

TABLE III—AVERAGES OF THE MEAN CHRONOLOGICAL AGES FOR EACH OF THE CORRESPONDING THREE MONTHS MENTAL AGE GROUPS FOR THOSE WITH THE LOWER MENTAL AGES AND THOSE WITH THE HIGHER MENTAL AGES

Class	1st 5 M.A. Groups	2d 7 M.A. Groups	All M.A. Groups
Alpha girls	12 yrs., 5 mos.	12 yrs., 7 mos.	12 yrs., 6 mos.
Mixed girls	12 yrs., 9½ mos.	13 yrs., 1½ mos.	12 yrs., 11 mos.
Composite girls	12 yrs., 9½ mos.	13 yrs., 1½ mos.	12 yrs., 11 mos.
	1st 4 M.A. Groups	2d 8 M.A. Groups	All M.A. Groups
Alpha boys		12 yrs., 11 mos.	12 yrs., 11 mos.
Mixed boys		13 yrs., 3½ mos.	13 yrs., 3½ mos.
Composite boys	12 yrs., 10 mos.	13 yrs., 3½ mos.	13 yrs., 1½ mos.

geneous grouping of pupils on the basis of intellect and attainment. It is suggestive that where such grouping obtains, the problem of handling the different groups may still be unsolved. The fact that the alpha class made no greater progress may well have been due to the fact that they were given more varied work to do rather than more difficult problems to solve and more complex ideas to grasp. The lack of any clear-cut superiority of the alpha class in quality of work does force home two very pertinent questions indeed. "What shall we teach the classes made up of gifted children? What methods of instruction are suitable for teaching superior children?" Clear-cut pieces of experimental work dealing with all phases of instruction and under different conditions of stimulation are greatly needed to determine what is the best procedure to follow in teaching the gifted pupils.

The complaint of the high school teachers that the pupils of the alpha classes are chronologically young and immature may also well be examined as it has a direct bearing upon the success of the alpha class plan. The chronological ages of the pupils in the three types of classes were handled in the same way as the achievement quotients. The resulting data in Table III, which gives the averages of the mean chronological ages of the several mental age groups for each type of class, show a distinct tendency for the pupils of the alpha class who are similar in mental ages to those in other classes to be chronologically younger. This is especially true of the girls.

The striking fact about the data in Table III is the unexpected tendency for the pupils with the higher mental ages among those having intelligence quotients of 120 and above to be chronologically older than the pupils with the lower mental ages among this group of superior children. And this holds true for all three types of classes. Quite as significant is the fact that in each type of class the boys of the same mental ages are chronologically older than the girls by several months. In fact, the difference between the boys and girls in chronological age in any type of class is almost as great as that between the different types of classes. This, however, the high school teachers have failed to notice.

But why should the pupils of the alpha class be younger? A comparison of pupils of the three types of classes having approximately the same intelligence quotients

ABLE IV—AVERAGES OF THE MEAN CHRONOLOGICAL AGES AND OF THE MEAN MENTAL AGES FOR EACH OF THE CORRESPONDING FOUR POINT INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT GROUPS

Class	Averages of Mean Chronological Ages		Averages of Mean Mental Ages	
	Years	Months	Years	Months
Alpha girls	12	4½	16	6½
Mixed girls	12	11½	17	1
Composite girls	12	7½	16	9½
Alpha boys	13	1	17	3
Mixed boys	13	3½	17	6
Composite boys	13	1	17	2

shows a somewhat different tendency. Just as the pupils were grouped by mental ages in Tables I, II, and III, they were later grouped for intelligence quotients into eight groups differing consecutively by four I. Q. units. In Table IV are given the averages of the mean chronological ages and of the mean mental ages of the groups corresponding in intelligence quotients in the three types of classes.

While the average chronological age and also the average mental age is several months younger for the girls of the alpha class than for the girls of either of the other types of class, the case is different with the boys. In average chronological age the boys of the composite classes are just as young as those of the alpha class, while in average mental age the boys of the alpha class are actually older than those of the composite classes.

Incidentally it may be interesting to note in connection with Table V, which gives the number of pupils in each mental age group for each type of class, that, among the pupils with intelligence quotients of 120 and above, more of the eighth-grade girls than boys in all three types of classes are found with the younger mental ages. One immediately wonders whether this more rapid promotion of the superior girls is due to a quality of work that correspondingly surpasses that of the boys or whether the superior girls are promoted more rapidly because of other factors, just as in the case of girls of average intelligence. A summary of the mean achievement quotients for the girls and boys of corresponding mental ages indicates that the girls do surpass the boys in quality of work in spelling—that is, they have higher mean achievement quotients in spelling in all types of classes. Likewise, in both the fundamental operations of arithmetic and in arithmetic problems, the girls surpass the boys in three cases out of four. In reading and range of information in American history there is no difference. But in the thought phase of American history and in both the information and thought phase of geography, the boys surpass the girls in 11 cases out of 12. Hence, taking into consideration all the phases of work measured, the superior girls have certainly not won their more rapid promotions because of a better quality of work. They have won them in spite of their lower comparative attainments in the same grades.

While the evidence presented by these comparative measurements shows no brief for the alpha class as it is usually handled, neither is homogeneous grouping condemned. It does suggest very decidedly, however, that, to be successful, the alpha class must make some use of homogeneous

TABLE V—NUMBERS OF GIRLS AND OF BOYS IN EACH MENTAL AGE GROUP IN THE THREE TYPES OF CLASSES

Mental Age Groups	Alpha		Mixed		Composite	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Below 15 yrs., 6 mos.	1		1		5	4
15 yrs., 6 mos. to 15 yrs., 8 mos.	2		1		5	2
15 yrs., 9 mos.	3		2		6	5
16 yrs., 0 mos.	1		1		1	7
16 yrs., 3 mos.	1	1	1	2	12	6
16 yrs., 6 mos.	1	1	2	1	5	6
16 yrs., 9 mos.	2	1	5	4	13	4
17 yrs., 0 mos.		2	2	2	7	5
17 yrs., 3 mos.				3	7	9
17 yrs., 6 mos.		4	1	3	2	8
17 yrs., 9 mos.			1		1	2
18 yrs., and above	4	2	2	1	4	5

grouping. Not only does the class of gifted pupils need a curriculum of more complex content, but in all probability different methods of instruction are also essential. That even unnoticed differences of instruction within the same class may result in variations in quality of work is evidenced by both the mental age differences and the sex differences in quality of work. More appropriate methods of instruction and more wisely selected content may work quite as marked differences in the different types of classes. To settle this question, however, resort must be had to experimentation under rigidly controlled conditions.

EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE THROUGH ASSEMBLY PROGRAMS[1]

FRANKLIN P. HAWKES AND TERESA M. MCDERMOTT[2]
Junior High School West, Arlington, Massachusetts

One day, several years ago, a true story that was told to a group of parents raised a good deal of comment. It was the story of a young man who had committed some petty crime and had been brought before the Judge. It so happened in this case that the Judge was a personal friend of the father of the young man. As he reviewed the evidence, the Judge said: "My boy, your father's standing in this community is one of exceptional reputation." "Yes," said the young man, "so they say, but I never knew him."

Has it ever seemed to you that we have been claiming for years that this school, or that school, is preparing the student for life; that we have enjoyed the reputation of accomplishing this purpose; and that yet, in the final analysis, the student answers to our queries, when he sends his own children to school, "Yes, so they say, but I never saw life situations in my school"? Nevertheless, all over the country there are schools that are attempting, bit by bit, to *introduce* life in its splendid realities to the student of the school.

W. Henry Miller, of Fall River, in his article in the *Journal of Education* for June 24, 1926, describes the assembly in this manner:

> Junior High boys and girls are interested in pages out of the everyday lives of their companions when presented in an interesting but not necessarily in an unusual way. . . .
>
> The material for these programs should be taken largely from the everyday work of the classroom, so that the most of the preliminary preparation can be valuable class work, motivated because it is to be used for assembly. This is a point which is difficult for some teachers to grasp; they are apt to think they must go far afield for material for a program instead of making the program exemplify a page out of the real life of the school. It takes some courage and faith to apply this principle at first; but once tried, courage and faith will result in conviction, the assemblies will be vital, the work of the different departments will be emphasized and dignified, and the assembly atmosphere will be charged with happiness all around.

The point of view that Mr. Miller takes opens up many possibilities to the school administrator. The largest concern in the life of any school is that of adequate educational guidance. For years the 8-4 plan of organization satisfied the educational experts until the beacon light of psychology and child development urged a program under the 6-3-3 form. One of the characteristics of the second unit of that form, otherwise known as the Junior High School, has been the expressed aim of "bridging the gap" between the elementary and the senior high school through the medium of exploratory courses and educational guidance.

We are thus arriving at an understanding of the need of the students, in a school where electives are offered, for a complete comprehension of the general school pro-

[1] This is the first of a series of three articles on Educational Guidance.

[2] Mr. Hawkes is principal and Miss McDermott is a member of the English Department of Junior High School West.—Editors.

gram. Three prominent means of giving that comprehension are: (1) the assembly, where the pupil may learn about his future courses and at the same time indulge in life activities; (2) teachers' meetings, where the "group consciousness," as recorded by MacDougal's "group mind," of the teaching body is developed; and (3) the opportunity in higher education as revealed through a College Week.

Certain rather fundamental ideas need to be stated when one attempts a program of educational guidance:

1. The program should be built entirely around the child, with his methods and ideals as major influences.
2. Provision should be made for participation by all members of the group in which the educational guidance is to function.
3. The aim of the particular form of educational guidance which is being used at any one time should be clear-cut in the minds of those administering it.
4. A preliminary check-up should be made through written expressions and suggestions from the teachers and pupils as to the value of the program, as well as the improvement of it.
5. A final check-up should be made in two or three years to determine the relative effect upon attendance at high school as well as continuity of courses and permanence of membership in higher schools of education.

With these ideas before us, let us consider the assembly program. How shall we furnish educational guidance built around the pupil's methods in assemblies? Mr. Miller points out one very suitable way in which the actual work of an academic classroom may be so made to function that not only the classwork is valuable preparation for the assembly, but the assembly itself becomes a means of expression for both the leaders and the audience. Such an assembly is the one here described by Miss McDermott:

A Book Report Project Becomes An Assembly Program

I wonder if anyone knows at what age we begin to make believe we are some one else? Again, I wonder when we cease to "make believe"?

One month previous to the time when this project took place, I suggested to the class that we try to make our book reports a little different. Several suggestions were given, and among them was this:

"Why not make believe you're a book agent and sell us your book?"

The brightest child accepted this suggestion and carried it out so well that some one said:

"Why can't we all be book agents the next time reports are due?"

The next week each child was given a typewritten copy like the following:

English

Book reports due the week of January twenty-fifth.

Each pupil is to play the part of a book agent and will have five minutes to sell his book to the class.

Give the title, author, something about the author, and the important characters. Relate one interesting or amusing incident. Give your reasons for wishing to sell the book.

Each "pupil agent" is to advertise his book by a poster, the best of which will be on exhibition in the Assembly Hall.

The two best agents will be chosen from each division by a vote of the class. Later, the three best agents will be selected from the eight chosen, and will be awarded honor prizes. The contest for the final selection will take place at assembly, January 28. The judges will be chosen by Mr. Hawkes.

I watched each class read the announcement and saw new light and interest begin to grow in their faces.

Mothers, fathers, brothers and sisters became interested. Each child seemed to have his whole family and even the neighbors working. The children spent Saturdays in Boston visiting publishing houses and book stores. They returned with the most interesting reports. Every-

where they were treated with the greatest courtesy. In several instances they were invited to inspect the publishing houses and were given all material gratis. Publishers took the children's names, name of school, and addresses, and asked several questions about the work. Their favorable comments made a lasting impression on the boys and girls.

A week before reports were due, the classes discussed what points would be marked and the value to be given to each. A point I greatly desired to stress came out at this time. Christmas had brought many books, several of which were not on our list. The classes decided that unless a book were "on the list," full credit would not be given. Below is the scoring sheet finally accepted.

At this juncture some one suggested that I select the students who were to report the first day, the second day, and so forth. I asked for volunteers. As a result of this, the book agent knew what day to bring his poster, advertising material, etc. A third idea was to place the posters around the room so that each could be more accurately scored.

The book agents advertised and sold their books for three days. They displayed exceptional tact and skill. The posters were so unusual and well-balanced that I felt they should get even more attention than was given on the score sheet. Why not have these judged, too, and given an honor prize? Why shouldn't the child with the inborn love of art receive praise?

Poster judging was almost as difficult a task as judging book reports. The drawing teacher pronounced them excellent. Three posters received first, second, and third honor prizes, and the next three received honorable mention. These six were placed on the pillars of the Assembly Hall on "Book Agents' Day." The other posters were placed on the walls of the Assembly Hall and made an attractive decoration.

The voting by ballot took place on the last book report day. Two were chosen from each division. Now the inter-division competition became keener. Only *three* prizes and *four* divisions! One class must lose!

Each book agent had an opportunity to listen to the other seven on the afternoon before assembly. Here was good sportsmanship! Everyone was ready with constructive criticism.

Perhaps some of their novel ideas would not be amiss here. One of the agents carried in her brief case a copy of her book, the company's card, several commercial posters, book cata-

SCORING SHEET
Book Agents

Topic	Points	Pupils							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Biography	10								
Value of book	5								
Book report	30								
Poster	20								
Originality	10								
Voice	10								
Personality	10								
Length	5								
Totals	100								

logues, a poster on which was printed: "Read One Good Book a Month," her own poster, and a box-like book containing a doll dressed in cretonne. This agent was selling *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm.*

On the morning of assembly, ushers—members of the student council—passed scoring sheets while the principal explained the marking. The same scoring sheet was used as given for class use. At the same time the faculty were requested to score the book reports and to compile their judgments in one room. One teacher totalled the results for the faculty; I took care of the children's score sheets.

Can you picture four hundred and fifty children listening eagerly to a book agent—a girl or boy of thirteen or fourteen years in the eighth grade—as he tells about the book, and begins:

"There was a young man about twenty-two years old left in a forest by some accident to his airplane. What would you do in his place? If you were a member of the forest patrol, as he was, you would—but there, if you read the book you will find out." Psychology? From boys and girls? Yes!

As a result of this assembly program planning, the entire student body felt that it was their program. Each one had a score to pass in, and each one needed to exercise judgment. What did the children gain? I'll let them speak for themselves:

"I learned how to choose the *good* points."

"I found out things about the author, and have his picture."

"I learned to be more self-controlled before my classmates."

"From being a book agent I created a friendship with Miss Salmon of Houghton Mifflin Co."

"I gained confidence in myself."

On examining the freshmen at Harvard last fall, President Lowell said they were found wanting. One conclusion of the President's was, "The students can't read books." Don't you think the freshmen in future years will be better equipped if we make reading a joy and a means of self-expression?

Let us, then, consider each of the fundamental ideas relative to a program of educational guidance. Was this program built around the child? This question answers itself, for the activity was purely a child activity. Was provision made for participation of all the group? Again the assembly program answers in the affirmative.

What was the aim of the guidance in this program? Did this aim attain achievement? The aim was clear-cut in this program, namely, to stimulate the pupils to greater interest in reading books. This carried with it the corollary of aiding pupils to select good books, and to pass judgment on these books. The preliminary check-up took the form of a written expression from the pupils as to the value of the work both in class and in assembly. Some of these answers have already been given. Subsequent to this written check-up, the report of the English teacher on the use of books in the library period, together with the report of the town librarian, revealed the following facts:

1. More books were being read in the library period.
2. The books discussed in the assembly exercise were called for more frequently at the town library than were other books.

The final check-up necessitates the passage of several years, together with a technique for making a reliable study. When that time comes, it is to be hoped that such a study will be made and published.

In conclusion, it may well be added that the largest problem confronting the Junior High School today is the problem of *guidance.* If each principal, working in coöperation with his teachers, will develop one phase of the guidance program, if he will keep before him a definite and clear-cut aim, and if he will complete his study so that the rest of the profession may advance through his efforts, not many years will elapse before the program of

guidance will have as carefully developed techniques as the fundamental processes have. Each principal will therefore not only grant the pupil the opportunity to understand and appreciate the offering the school has to make by means of these techniques, but will also give the pupil the incentive to make full use of these school opportunities. May the parents of the future look back and say, in answer to our first question—"Are there life-situations in the schools of today?"—these splendid words: "Yes, so they say; how well I remember what my school did for me!"

TO WHAT EXTENT MAY WE RELY UPON THE ANSWERS TO A SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE?

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In the April, 1926, issue of this JOURNAL there appeared an editorial entitled "Job Analysis and After," in which attention was directed to the inaccuracy of the responses which are usually offered in answer to the inquiries of the average questionnaire. The warning was given "that questionnaires must always be checked by means of more objective evidence," and the further suggestion was made that some one "will perform a real service by finding out what the average inaccuracy in certain selected fields actually is." This latter statement provided the incentive for the present article, in which there are reported a few items of objective evidence of the sort evidently referred to by the writer of the editorial.

The data and other material for this article were obtained during the winter of 1925-26 while the writer was engaged in making a study of the social and economic background of a selected group of pupils in the public schools of Newark, New Jersey.[1] This study was part of a larger Survey, the purpose of which was to obtain information regarding the relative efficiency of the All-Year schools as compared with the so-called Traditional schools, that is, schools which do not remain in session during the summer vacation period. For various reasons it was necessary to limit the number of pupils who could be examined and tested in the Survey. Because of this, only those children were considered whose ages were included between the limits of 11 years, 0 months, and 12 years, 6 months. This population was distributed among seventeen different schools and, after certain deductions, yielded a net total of 2266 cases.

On December 10, 1925, these individuals were very thoroughly tested for intelligence and school achievement by a corps of one hundred and twenty graduate students of Teachers College, Columbia University, who worked under the general direction of Professor William A. McCall. Among other instruments which were used on this occasion was a questionnaire compiled by the writer. This was based in part upon the rating scale for home conditions

[1] An account of this has already been published as Part IV of the report submitted to the Board of Education of Newark by Dr. Wilson Farrand and Professor M. V. O'Shea. This report was issued in February, 1926, under the title, "The All-Year Schools of Newark, New Jersey." To this the reader is referred for a complete summary of the entire Survey.

devised by Chapman and Sims[2] and was designed to elicit detailed information regarding the social, economic, hygienic, and lingual conditions affecting the home life of each child.[3] A copy of the questionnaire appears on the following page.

For administering the questionnaire, the pupils were assembled in groups corresponding in size to an ordinary elementary class. Each group was in charge of a trained examiner who was instructed to read the questions aloud and to make sure that the pupils understood what they were to do. A mimeographed copy of the questionnaire was also given to each child and upon these sheets the answers were recorded.

It was next decided to test the validity or truthfulness of the answers to the questionnaire by checking up a small sampling of these against other sources of information. For this purpose a second mimeographed sheet was prepared which, in addition to certain other data, repeated twelve of the original thirty-three questions in a slightly altered wording. The questions thus repeated were numbers 1, 2, 5, 6, 12, 22, 23, 28, 29, 30, 32, and 33. These were selected as representative and significant questions and it was thought that if a reasonably high degree of accuracy could be established for the answers made to them by the pupils, then a corresponding degree of trustworthiness might fairly be claimed for the thirty-three inquiries of the original questionnaire.

Copies of the short form containing the twelve questions were distributed as follows. Several weeks after the date of the original testing, two hundred and twenty names (approximately one-tenth of the total number of 2266 pupils referred to at the beginning of this article) were selected at random and turned over to Miss J. Isabelle Sims, Assistant Secretary of the Welfare Federation of Newark, with the request that the Federation report on any of these names that might appear in the office files as belonging to families which were known to various coöperating social agencies. In this way homes would be chosen which were already familiar to persons associated with the Federation and the necessary information could be more readily obtained than otherwise. Of the 220 names, 41 appeared in the files of the Federation—22 for the All-Year group and 19 for the Traditional Schools. These 41 names, together with copies of the sheet containing the twelve questions, were then placed in the hands of experienced case workers who were well acquainted with local neighborhood conditions in Newark. Instructions were given to check up the various items personally and to report the facts, as far as possible, as of December 10, 1925. Reports for a total of 29 pupils of the 41 were later turned in by these investigators. The various items of these reports were then compared with the corresponding 29 reports made by the pupils some weeks before and the amount of agreement between the two sets of papers was tabulated. It was assumed that in case of a disagreement the report of the case worker should be accepted as the more authoritative of the two. The amount or percentage by which the pupils agreed with the case worker was then taken to be the measure of the accuracy of the pupils' original answers to the questionnaire. Item by item these comparisons are given below. The numbering of the questions is that of the original questionnaire. Where the

[2] "The Quantitative Measurement of Certain Aspects of Socio-Economic Status," by J. Crosby Chapman and V. M. Sims, of the Department of Education, Yale University. A description of this will be found in the *Journal of Educational Psychology*, September, 1925, pp. 380-390.

[3] A detailed account of the Newark questionnaire, together with the results obtained, is given on pages 61-75 of the report already referred to.

QUESTIONNAIRE

(The examiner will read each question aloud and make sure that pupils understand what they are to do.)

Name.....Race.....White or Colored.....
Grade.....School.....Boy or Girl.....
Home address.....

Draw a ring around the correct answer to each question.

Example: Is Christmas Day the 25th of December? (Yes) No

---

1. Did your mother attend high school? Yes No
2. About how many books are there in your home?
   5 10 25 50 75 100 125 150 175
   200 300 400 500 or more
3. Do you have a piano in your home? Yes No
4. How many magazines do you take regularly in your home?
   None 1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Do you have a telephone in your home? Yes No
6. Do you have an auto other than a truck? Yes No
7. Did your father attend high school? Yes No
8. Is your house heated by a big furnace in the basement? Yes No
9. Is English the only language spoken in your home? Yes No
10. Do you have a Victrola or Edison in your home? Yes No
11. How many daily papers do you regularly take in your home?
    1 2 3 4
12. Is there a bathtub in your home? Yes No
13. Do you have a toothbrush of your own? Yes No
14. Is there a good supply of running hot water at home? Yes No
15. Do you sleep with your window open? Yes No
16. Is there a room at home in which you can study by yourself without being disturbed? Yes No
17. Is there a radio in your home? Yes No
18. Have you a card for the Public Library? Yes No
19. How many times have you been to the movies this last week?
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6
20. Do you work after school or on Saturdays for pay? Yes No
21. About how many hours each week do you work for pay?
    1 to 5 6 to 10 11 to 15 16 to 20 21 to 25
22. Does your mother go out to work regularly? Yes No
23. What is your father's occupation?.....
24. What clubs and societies do you belong to?.....
25. What do you want to do when you leave school?.....
26. Is there anything else that you wish to tell about yourself? If so, write it here.....
.....
27. In what country were you born?.....
28. In what country was your father born?.....
29. In what country was your mother born?.....
30. What language does your mother speak at home most of the time?.....
31. What language does your father speak at home most of the time?.....
32. How many rooms in your home?.....
33. How many persons are there in your family who live at home, including yourself?.....

information was incomplete or omitted, or where for some other reason a direct comparison of the replies of the pupil and the case worker could not be made, the particular item has been dropped. This will account for the variation in the number of cases reported from question to question.

1. Did the mother attend high school?
   Number of cases..... 28
   Pupil agrees with case worker in..... 26 cases
   Percentage of exact agreement 92.9%
2. About how many books are there in the home?

This question for some reason showed a considerable variation between the questionnaires and the field reports, most pupils reporting a larger number of books than did the case worker, and four children greatly upsetting the balance by reporting an excess ranging from 125 to 395 volumes each.

   Number of cases 25
   Percentage of exact agreement
   Pupil agrees exactly ..... 6 cases 24%
   Exact agreement plus not more than 10 volumes difference 60%
   Exact agreement plus not more than 25 volumes difference 76%
5. Is there a telephone in the house?
   Number of cases..... 28
   Pupil agrees exactly..... 26 cases
   Percentage of exact agreement 92.9%
6. Does the family have an auto other than a truck?
   Number of cases..... 29
   Pupil agrees exactly..... 24 cases
   Percentage of exact agreement 82.8%
12. Is there a bathtub in the home?
   Number of cases..... 29
   Pupil agrees exactly..... 24 cases
   Percentage of exact agreement 82.8%
22. Does mother go out to work regularly?
   Number of cases..... 26
   Pupil agrees exactly..... 24 cases
   Percentage of exact agreement 92.3%
23. What is the father's occupation?

The question of the father's occupation proved a somewhat difficult one both to report and to classify. Of the 24 cases available for consideration here:

- 9 definitely show a disagreement between the pupil and the case worker regarding the occupation specified.
- 10 reports are the same or practically the same.
- 3 are on the border line between agreement and disagreement.
- 2 are cases in which both pupil and case worker report "no father" or "dead."

Even if we add together the last three items above, we can claim a percentage right for the pupils' reports of only 62.5%.

Probably the best way to present the differences in the two sets of reports will be to tabulate 29 of the cases, classifying them roughly into occupational groups and indicating the number in each group as stated by pupils and by case workers.

	Number reported by pupils	Number reported by case workers
Salesman	1.....	0
Worker in factory or shop	1.....	2
Skilled worker.....	13.....	10
Unskilled worker...	2.....	12
Worker, but exact classification cannot be given.....	3.....	0
Does not work.....	1.....	1
No father, dead....	2.....	4
Not scorable (illegible, etc.).....	1.....	0
Omitted	5.....	0
	29	29

28. In what country was the father born?
Number of cases..... 26
Pupil agrees exactly..... 26 cases
Percentage of exact agreement 100%

29. In what country was the mother born?
Number of cases..... 27
Pupil agrees exactly..... 24 cases
Percentage of exact agreement 88.9%

30. What language does the mother speak at home most of the time?
Number of cases..... 26
Pupil agrees exactly..... 20 cases
Percentage of exact agreement 76.9%

Six pupils reported English as the mother's home language for which the case worker reported some foreign language, as Italian, Slavic, Ukranian, etc.

32. How many rooms in the home?
Number of cases..... 29
Pupil agrees exactly..... 20 cases
Percentage of exact agreement 69.0%

The percentage of what we may term "practical agreement" is, however, really much higher than 69.0% since in this Survey we are dealing with a large number of children and for our immediate purpose are more interested in *average* results than in *individual* cases. Looked at in this way we find that

If the reports of all the pupils are added together, there is a total of 127 rooms for the 29 families—that is, an average per family of 4.38 rooms.

The case workers report a total of 120 rooms —an average per family of 4.14 rooms.

On this basis of considering only the *total* number of rooms, the reports of the pupils can be credited with a "practical agreement" of 94.2%.

33. How many persons are there in the family who live at home, including children?
Number of cases..... 29
Pupil agrees exactly..... 17 cases
Percentage of exact agreement 58.6%

Just as in Question 32, the practical agreement of pupils and case workers is very much higher than 58.6%. Thus:

The pupils report a total of 202 persons for the 29 families which, combined with the information of Question 32, makes an average of 1.59 persons per room.

The case workers report a total of 204 persons, or an average of 1.70 persons per room.

On this basis the pupils agree 99.0% on the total number of persons, and 93.5% on the average number of persons per room.

Check up of Library Cards. As an additional test of the accuracy of the answers made by the pupils, a check was made of Question 18, "Have you a card for the Public Library?" The list of 220 names already referred to was given to Miss Kirk of the children's department of the Newark Public Library with the request that the names on this list be compared with the library records in order to determine who were the owners of cards on December 10. This comparison showed a considerable amount of contradiction in individual cases between the Library lists and the questionnaires.

Of the 122 pupils in the All-Year group the replies of 29, or 23.8%, disagreed with the Library report.

Of the 98 pupils in the Traditional group the replies of 24, or 24.5%, disagreed with the Library report.

9.8% (12 cases) of the 122 pupils in the All-Year group failed to answer the question.

9.2% (9 cases) of the 98 pupils in the Traditional group failed to answer the question.

59 pupils (48.3%) of the All-Year group were reported by the Library as having cards.

70 pupils (57.4%) in the same group stated on the questionnaire that they had cards—a discrepancy of 9.1%.

56 pupils (57.1%) of the Traditional group were reported by the Library as having cards.

61 pupils (62.3%) of the same group stated on the questionnaire that they had cards— a discrepancy of 5.2%.

For both groups combined, 220 cases, the Library reported 115 cards and the pupils 131 cards, a difference of 16 cards. This difference is 13.9% of the true number of cards (115); and, if we deduct the papers of the 21 pupils who failed to answer this particular question, from the total of 220 questionnaires, we find that 16 is 8% of the 199 responses which were received in all. Considered as an estimate of the number of cards, we may claim a "practical agreement" of 86.1%.

The results of this check up on library cards may be roughly summarized thus: More than one pupil in four contradicted the library report. One pupil in ten failed to answer the question. The total number of cards reported by the pupils was about one-eighth larger than the true number as shown by the library records.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It may be objected that a sufficiently large number of questionnaires was not checked up to provide a solid basis for a final and authoritative pronouncement. This may in part be true, but at least the evidence is objective and as such is a fairly trustworthy straw which points the way the wind is blowing. To sum up: We have here the results of a questionnaire cast in the "new type" form and requiring responses about the simple facts of one's home conditions. The document was presented under average "survey" conditions by competent examiners to a group of eleven- and twelve-year-old children, and the replies were checked by definite objective evidence. Certain conclusions are fairly visible:

1. The answers of any *one* individual are not to be given too great credence.

2. The answers of a number of individuals taken together are, however, subject to the well-known laws of averages and errors and so tend to correct one another that the net *total* result has considerable validity and is entitled to consideration. This situation is neatly demonstrated in the check-up of the library cards in which it was shown that, while one child in four answered wrongly, yet the sum of the answers of 199 children is almost nine-tenths correct.

3. The percentage of correct answers varies considerably and somewhat unaccountably from question to question, but on the whole is high. Thus the answers to the thirteen questions yielded in "exact agreement" plus "practical agreement":

6 examples from 90 to 100% correct (Questions 1, 5, 22, 28, 32, 33)

4, from 80 to 90% correct (Questions 6, 12, 18, 29)

1, from 70 to 80% correct (Question 30)

1, from 60 to 70% correct (Question 23)

1, somewhat difficult to appraise, but here classified as less than 60% correct (Question 2)

We have now answered in some detail the question propounded in the title of this article and, by way of conclusion, are prepared to say: Yes, we may rely upon the answers to a school questionnaire with a reasonably high degree of assurance, provided that in framing our questions we observe these simple working rules:

1. Ask only plainly worded questions concerning familiar facts and everyday experiences.

2. Ask a fairly large number of questions, if possible "interlocking" them in such a way that any vitally important point will be established by a sort of consensus of opinion among the answers and not rest merely upon one isolated statement.

3. Ask the questions of a sufficiently large number of individuals so that errors of judgment and of statement will have an opportunity to balance and correct one another and by so doing yield a net total which will be a reasonable approximation of the truth.

THE SLEEPING BEAUTY: A CRITICAL STUDY[1]

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This study of the traditional fairy tale, "Sleeping Beauty," is merely suggestive of the rich field for study that is offered to the teacher in the old tales that children love. Such study and investigation on the part of teachers will bring them to their classes with a much keener insight into the real value and meaning of this type of children's literature, and a much fuller literary background upon which to draw in their efforts to give to the child that great wealth of folklore and fairy tale that rightly belongs to him.

The story of "The Sleeping Beauty" is told by Grimm under the title of "Briar Rose," and by Perrault under the title of "The Beauty of the Sleeping Wood." We chose the Grimm version for this study because it omits an episode which Perrault includes and which seems to be totally unnecessary to the tale, in fact seems almost dragged in. This episode is the incident of the ogress, the mother of the prince who married the Beauty, and with her is introduced an element of cannibalism which mars the beauty of the story as Grimm tells it. The Grimm version has frequently been admired for its almost perfect economy in the use of story material, and is therefore interesting as an example of short-story construction.

From an allegorical standpoint, the story has for its theme the long sleep of Winter, which is finally awakened by the gentle kiss of Spring. Beauty, the Earth, has been pricked by the icy darts of Winter and falls into a sleep from which the Sun awakens her.

Chronologically, the earliest form of this story is in the Norse myth of Balder, the Beautiful. Balder, warned in a dream that his life is in peril, seeks aid from the gods. Frigga, the wife of Odin, succeeds in exacting from all things (excepting only the mistletoe, which she deems too weak to offer any resistance) an oath that they will never harm Balder. At the instigation of Loki, the author of evil, and the foe of Balder, the Good, the mistletoe is the cause of Balder's death. Frigga promises that if all will weep for Balder he may be returned to Asgard, the home of the gods. But Loki thwarts the plan. He takes the form of a toothless old woman and refuses to weep.

In the German version of the story in the *Nibelungenlied,* Odin causes Brynhild, one of the Valkyries, to be pricked by a sleep thorn, which sends her into a profound sleep. From this she is finally awakened by Sigurd, who, attracted by the appearance of fire, comes to the shieldburg where Brynhild lies sleeping and awakens her by ripping up her armor with his sword.

Sidney Hartland in his *Science of Fairy Tales* says that the Sleeping Beauty story is less common in all other races than in the Teutonic, but among these peoples many variants of it are found.

Perhaps the Greek myth of Persephone is a parallel story. Here we have the eat-

[1] This study is a part of the work done in a course in Children's Literature which the author gives during the Summer Quarter at Mercer University, Macon, Ga. All rights reserved by the author.

ing of the pomegranate seeds in Hades as the cause of the maiden's enforced absence from earth. All during the winter season the girl remains entombed in the depths of Hades, but with the return of her laughter and sunshine to earth, Spring succeeds the Winter's gloom.

In his *Golden Bough,* Sir James G. Fraser attempts to connect the sleeping maiden with the idea of human sacrifice in connection with the worship of the Earth goddess. Others suggest that the prolonged sleep phase of the story may have had its origin in the primitive notions of hypnotism. In such a case, the objective instrument producing the sleep—the thorn, the spindle, or the pin—may be but the outward symbol of the inward suggestion.

The whole idea of the story suggests that the savage was cruelly ignorant of the true nature of death, and that he frequently failed to distinguish between death and sleep. The belief that death is the result of some sort of magic makes perfectly natural the belief that the dead can be restored by the removal of the enchantment or the curse.

The analysis which follows is based directly on the text of the Grimm version of "Briar Rose," as translated by Edgar Taylor.

THE STORY:	ANALYSIS:
Once upon a time	The characteristic indefiniteness of time. MacCulloch, in his *Childhood of Fiction,* says that there are three essentials of the nursery tale (the traditional fairy tale): 1. The characters in the tale are all anonymous. 2. There is no note of time or place. 3. The story has a definite theme, or plot, worked up to its definite conclusion.
there lived a king and queen who had no children;	Note the simplicity of the introduction, the plunging at once into the story. Note also the absence of names of the king and queen.
this they lamented very much.	Although we read many accounts of the desertion, or exposure, of defective children or of children born under any sort of unusual circumstances, among primitive peoples, yet these peoples loved their children and desired offspring.
But one day as the queen was walking by the side of a river, a little fish lifted its head out of the water and said:	Belief that birds, beasts, and fish were gifted with the powers of thought and speech, as are human beings, was a part of the animistic attitude of the savage. Many of the traditional fairy tales tell of the friendly animal who helps people; for instance, the highly intelligent cat in "Puss in Boots."
"Your wish shall be fulfilled and you shall have a little daughter."	Here we see the belief in the prophetic powers of speaking animals.
What the little fish had foretold soon came to pass; and the queen had a little girl that was so very beautiful	Prophecy fulfilled and joy of the royal family. Matters of concern to the royal family be-

that the king could not cease looking on it for joy;
and determined to hold a great feast.

So he invited not only his relatives, friends, and neighbors, but also the fairies that they might be kind and good to his little daughter.

Now there were thirteen fairies in his kingdom, and he had only twelve golden dishes for them to eat out of, so he was obliged to leave one of the fairies without an invitation.

The rest came and after the feast was over they gave all their best gifts to the little princess: one gave her virtue, another beauty, another riches, and so on till she had all that was excellent in the world.

came matters of concern to the people, and were celebrated with feasts which partook of the nature of ceremonies.

Compare with the invitation to the gods and goddesses to be present at the wedding feast of Peleus and Thetis.

Compare with the the romance of Olger, the Dane, which is a French variant of the prolonged sleep cycle of tales.

The number thirteen suggests the superstition that this is an unlucky number, and that the king wished to avoid the number at the feast.

Compare with the story of Peleus and Thetis, in which the goddess of Discord fails to receive an invitation to the feast.

Compare with the story of Olger, the Dane, in which it is told that six fairies presided at his birth, bestowing various gifts upon him. Morgan, the Fay, the last of the six, promised that after a long and glorious career, he should not die, but should come and live with her in her castle of Avalon. She was true to her word and took him to her castle. There she put a ring upon his finger that restored

When the eleventh had done blessing her, the thirteenth fairy, who had not been invited and who was very angry on that account, came in and determined to take her revenge.
So she cried out: "The king's daughter shall in her fifteenth year be wounded by a spindle and fall down dead."

Then came the twelfth, who had not yet given her gift, and said that the bad wish must be fulfilled, but that she could soften it, and that the king's daughter should not die, but fall asleep for a hundred years.

his youth, and a crown on his brow, a crown of myrtle and laurel which made him forget his previous life. With Morgan, the Fay, he dwelt for two hundred years, until the day when France, in great danger, cried for a deliverer. Then Morgan removes the crown of forgetfulness from his brow; and bidding him guard with his life the ring, and giving him a torch, she sends him to deliver France. This is the type of magic sleep story in which a long-looked-for deliverer comes from such a sleep.

Compare with the anger of the Goddess of Discord at the wedding of Peleus and Thetis, and with her desire to be revenged.

The princess' death foretold. Compare with the myth of Balder, the Beautiful, in which his peril is foretold in his dreams.

Spinning was one of the household industries of early primitive culture and we find the spinning-wheel and the act of spinning mentioned in many of the folk tales from which the fairy tales sprang.

The hundred-year sleep predicted is a softening of the evil fairy's wish.

All the fairies' gifts were in the meantime fulfilled, for the princess was so beautiful, and well-behaved, and amiable, and wise, that all who knew her loved her. Now it happened that on the very day she was fifteen years old, the king and queen were not at home and she was left alone in the palace. So she roved about by herself and looked at all the rooms and chambers till at last she came to an old tower, to which there was a narrow staircase ending with a little door. In the door there was a golden key, and when she turned it, the door sprang open, and there sat an old lady spinning very busily. "Why, how now, good mother," said the princess, "What are you doing there?"

"Spinning," said the old lady, nodding her head.

"How prettily that little thing turns round!" said the princess, and took the spindle and began to spin. But scarcely had she touched it before the prophecy was fulfilled and she fell down lifeless on the ground.

However, she was not dead but had only fallen into a deep sleep; and the king and queen who had just then come in and all their court fell asleep too; and the horses slept in the stables; and the dogs

But the king hoped to save his dear child from the threatened evil and ordered that all the spindles in the kingdom be bought up and destroyed.

The time during which a magic sleep continues, varies in the different stories. In the Olger story, we have two hundred years; in the Rip Van Winkle story we have one hundred; and in others we have shorter periods.

Notice that the evil wish of the old fairy could not be entirely set aside; its evil effects could, however, be mitigated by a subsequent wish.

The efforts to forestall the fulfillment of the prophecy.

Compare with the efforts made by Frigga to save Balder.

Compare also with the efforts of Laius to forestall the warning from the oracle that he should be killed by his son, who should then marry his own mother. (The story of Œdipus in Greek mythology.)

Compare also with the story of King Priam's efforts to thwart the prophecy that through his own son Troy should be destroyed. (The story of the Trojan War in Greek mythology.)

The tower plays a part in many fairy tales.

The old lady was undoubtedly the evil fairy.

The prophecy fulfilled.

In some variants no one but the princess falls asleep.

This passage is also very interesting for the number of details that it gives and the extremely realistic manner of the description of the fulfillment of the prophecy.

in the court; and the pigeons on the house-top; and the flies on the walls. Even the fire on the hearth left off burning and went to sleep; and the meat that was roasting stood still; and the cook who was at that moment pulling the kitchen boy by the hair to give him a box on the ear for something he had done amiss, let him go, and both fell asleep; and so everything stood still and slept soundly.

A large hedge of thorns soon grew round the palace, and every year it grew higher and thicker, till at last the whole palace was surrounded and hid, so that not even the roof or the chimneys could be seen.

But there went a report through all the land of the beautiful sleeping Rose-Bud (for so was the king's daughter called); so that from time to time several kings' sons came and tried to break through the thicket into the palace. This they could never do for the thorns and the bushes laid hold of them as it were with hands and there they died miserably.

Here, too, is an interesting illustration of how the choice of words, the alliterative effect, contributes to the setting: the repetition of the word *sleep,* the repetition of the letter *s* in *sleep, asleep, just, horses, stables, dogs, stood,* etc. Miss Kready, in her *A Study of Fairy Tales,* suggests that the question of phonics of the fairy tales is one of great interest, and one which has been very little investigated.

In the story of Brynhild, a hedge of flames surrounds the sleeping Valkyrie, who is finally awakened at the touch of Siegfried's magic sword. In the Hindu, "Panch-Rhul Ranee," seven ditches surmounted by seven hedges of spears surround the heroine.

This attempt of princes to rescue the maiden suggests the custom in primitive peoples of winning as a bride a maiden rescued from some danger. It finds a parallel in the story in Greek mythology in the rescue of Andromeda by Perseus as he returns from his quest of the Gorgon's head.

Failure in such a quest inevitably ended in death. Suggestive of the deaths of the many suitors of Atalanta who met their doom in trying to rival her in running.

After many years there came a king's son into the land, and an old man told him the story of the thicket of thorns, and how a beautiful palace stood behind it, in which was a wonderful princess called Rose-Bud asleep with all her court. He told, too, how he had heard from his grandfather that many, many princes had tried to break through that thicket, but had stuck fast and died. Then the young prince said, "All this will not frighten me. I will go and see Rose-Bud." The old man tried to dissuade him, but he persisted in going.

Now that very day were the hundred years completed; and as the prince came to the thicket he saw nothing but beautiful flowering shrubs, through which he passed with ease, and they closed after him as firm as ever. Then he came at last to the palace and there in the courts lay the dogs asleep, and the horses in the stables, and on the roof sat the pigeons, fast asleep; and when he came into the kitchen the flies slept on the walls, and the cook in the kitchen was still holding up her hand as if she

One of the most beautiful of all the versions of Sleeping Beauty is told by Tennyson in his *Day-Dream.* The poem is addressed in the prologue to "Lady Flora" and is highly allegorical throughout. His description of the sleeping palace is especially interesting.

Note the name, Rose-Bud, nothing more than an abstract, symbolic name.

Compare this description of the palace as the prince finds it with the description of the palace as its inmates fell asleep, and note the effect on the unity of the story.

would beat the boy, and the maid sat with a black fowl in her hand ready to be plucked.

Then he went on still further and all was still, so that he could hear every breath he drew; till at last he came to the old tower and opened the door of the little room in which Rose-Bud was, and there she lay fast asleep and looked so beautiful that he could not take his eyes off of her.

Forceful description of stillness.

Compare the effect of the beauty of the princess on the prince as he sees her lie sleeping with the effect of her infant beauty upon her father.

And he stooped down and gave her a kiss. But the moment he kissed her she opened her eyes and smiled upon him.

Then they went out together and presently the king and queen also awoke and all the court and they gazed on one another with great wonder. And the horses got up and shook themselves, and the dogs jumped about and barked; the pigeons shook their heads from under their wings and looked about and flew into the fields; and the flies on the walls buzzed away; and the fire in the kitchen blazed up, and cooked the dinner, and the roast meat turned round again; the cook gave the boy the box on his ear so that he cried out, and the maid went on plucking the fowl.

The kiss was of significance in many of the rituals of early primitive peoples.

Note the action verbs in this paragraph.

And then was the wedding of the prince and Rose-Bud celebrated and they lived together happily all their lives.

The inevitable happy ending of the typical folk tale that has become the traditional fairy tale.

THE CLEARING HOUSE

PETER PAN IN THE FOURTH GRADE

The various educational activities engaged in by a fourth grade were the result of an attitude of inquiry aroused by a Peter Pan song written by a preceding class:

Oh, to be a fairy,
Tinker Bell, Tinker Bell,
Teach me how to fly to Peter Pan,
In fairyland so high.

Oh, I fear the pirates!
Here they come! Here they come!
Crocodile is after them,
Playing tick-tock, tick-tock on his drums.

READING AND DRAMATIZATION

The class was given an introduction to the story by hearing from the teacher a brief account of Maude Adams' inimitable rendition of Peter Pan, not forgetting her challenge from the footlights, "All who believe in fairies stand and clap their hands." At this, everyone in the audience, even the most sordid business man, stands, and with that imperishable child spirit that is in the heart of humanity, claps his hands and forgets to feel sheepish. An immediate immersion into the story followed.

Almost before Barrie had borne them in imagination away from the caress of Nana, the nursedog, the children were asking if they might "play the story." One had remarked: "I'd like to know that man Barrie, he must have been clever." Within the week he had delved into the libraries and brought back to his class interesting pictures and materials about Barrie, who was from now on a real personage to the children.

After listening to the reading of each chapter, the children dramatized the scenes in an impromptu manner. Those who desired to reproduce a chapter or paragraph in pantomime or in dramatic form, banded themselves into a group under the leadership of a pupil, who in turn worked under the advice of a teacher. After due consultation and simple rehearsals, they presented it to the room, which offered constructive criticisms and scored each group according to standards previously decided upon by them.

1. Use of English.
2. Ability to help the audience gain a clear picture of the scene being enacted.
3. Comprehension of the details of the scene according to the reading by the teacher.
4. Voice, posture.

If more than one group enacted the same scene, the group making the highest score was allowed to give the scene in the final composite production which was the sum total of all the smaller scenes. Sometimes the children made their own groupings. Sometimes the teacher chose the children. The groups decided upon the scene to be played, kept their choice secret and presented it in such a way that the class could guess the part acted. Always such simple accoutrements as waste baskets for chimneys, pointers for swords, shade cords for kites, etc., were used.

Pure abandonment to the spirit was noted throughout, and if the children could have had their wishes realized, the entire five school hours would have been devoted to such activities. When any point of discussion arose, the book was put into the hands of the group for further investigation.

From this there naturally followed a desire on the part of every child to read for himself, and although the story had been read to him by the teacher and been

reproduced in simple dramatic form, he soon lost himself in the silent reading as if devouring the story for the first time. Meanwhile, much of the remedial exercise work in reading centered around the subject, as did the spelling, composition, etc.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

Spontaneously many children began cutting and drawing pictures. When the question arose as to how some of these very worthy drawings might be preserved and how at the same time the classroom might be made more beautiful, a class discussion arose which lent itself to the question of "the room beautiful." Unanimously, the children decided to make a cut paper frieze to be placed above the blackboard the full length of the room.

Planning the pictorial representation of the story necessitated the listing of the scenes which would best tell the story in pictures, as had been told in print and again told by action.

Peter Pan was now theirs, not Barrie's. Naturally there arose the problem of the elementary study of the composition of friezes, proportions of panels, etc. The class decided upon five scenes. These were to be shown in four short end panels and one long center panel, to be worked out in the medium of cut colored paper.

1. Wendy, Michael and John Napoleon standing on their beds, with Peter and Tinker Bell at the window; Nana, the nursedog, under the bed.
2. The flight to Never-Never Land.
3. The Never-Never Land—Indians, fairies, Wendy's house, fairy forest, nymphs, flowers, toadstools, etc.
4. A pirate scene—Captain Hook, Smee, the pirate ships, the crocodile.
5. Wendy saying farewell to Peter in his tree-top house above all the earth.

After deciding upon the whole, the composition of each panel was studied separately. Every child in the class worked out each model. The best results were the ones chosen for the finished frieze.

Free-hand cutting was insisted upon. When papers of the necessary colors were not on hand, lessons in water color wash or crayola tinting were given so that the children might make their own materials from which to cut. When imagination could not be depended upon, the children and teachers ransacked the libraries for pictures of ships, crocodiles, trees, toadstools, etc.

The Rackam illustrations of Peter Pan and many of the modern exquisite editions of the story were on the browsing tables. As each scene was completed it was assembled on a fairy blue background and framed by black paper in the proscenium arch effect. A further expression of their appreciation and interpretation was given in the home construction of individual peep shows dealing with Peter Pan subjects and in the class construction of slides for a large class peep show.

Much practice was gained in drawing to a scale, in using the ruler, and in figuring proportions—all good arithmetical skills.

MUSIC

One of the greatest joys was found in their musical interpretation. Each child composed his own musical theme, which expressed his particular feeling. When molding these they found the necessity for some understanding of phrasing and rhythm. These points were studied from the standpoint of a fourth-grade child.

Many of the boys wished to work out such a theme as "The March of the Pirates" on board their ship, so must study march meter. The girls wished to give a musical picture of Wendy's lullaby as she rocked the Lost Boys to sleep, so they must understand the swinging lullaby motion. Some wished to give the lighter,

more airy rhythm of Tinker Bell's frolics, so worked on the 6/8 meter. No child had difficulty in composing or singing his musical theme. A few found difficulty in placing it on paper. Many children were not satisfied with simply one theme, but made their own collections of a series of original themes. Naturally followed the composition of words to fit the music, presenting the problems of meter, accent, and rhyme. The words of the song receiving the highest approval of the class were:

PETER PAN

The Lost Boys live in Never-Never Land,
Where fairies dance and sing.
Tiger Lily led the Redskin band,
Peter Pan was their king.

Wendy was the mother small,
Crocodile went "tick, tock."
Tinker Bell, the friend to all,
Left Fairyland unlocked.

A further joy to the teacher and to the children came in the decision to make the children's Christmas presents express some thought of Peter Pan. A socialized recitation was carried on in the discussion of the many forms that this gift might take. Their decision was to make a Peter Pan *ABC* book.

Comprehension was tested by listing appropriate subjects or persons in their story to fit each letter of the alphabet, so that the sum total would represent the main points of the story. Lessons in rhyme and rhythm had previously been given in connection with their music work. Further development of their sense of rhythm and a perception for rhyme was given through language games using rhythm and rhyme. A few rhymes using their Peter Pan alphabet were composed by the class as a whole, after which the children were left to wander at their hearts' content in their own alphabets, so that finally the aggregate list here given represented almost every member of the class:

A is for the Alarm clock the crocodile swallowed,
That warned Captain Hook whenever it followed.
B is for the Bed that Wendy slept in,
Pop went the window and Peter danced in.
C is for the Crocodile that licked his lips,
Whenever he caught sight of the Pirate ships.
D is for Doodle-do that was so near,
It caused Captain Hook to feel great fear.
E is for Every, every girl and boy,
Who loves the fairies of youth and joy.
F is for Fairies who are born with a smile,
And stay with us all the while
That small folks in years and till graver men,
Believe in them and have fun in them.
G is for Good, a good little mother,
Who tucked each Lost Boy under his cover.
H is for Hook, the Pirate bold,
He sent the boys down into the hold,
He opened his mouth too soon to scold,
We knew the end of that Pirate bold.
I is for Indian, the Redskin man,
Who liked the Lost Boys as did Peter Pan.
J is for John, who saw father's trick,
And said that he really needed the stick.
K is for the Kennel of Nana, the nurse maid;
After Peter on the nursery had made his raid,
Dear Father Darling crawled in each day,
To show his sorrow in this funny way.
L is for the Lagoon in Never-Never Land,
Whose shores were covered with fairy sand.
M is for Mermaids so merry at play,
With bubbles for balls, under rainbows of spray.
N is for the Nursery left vacant one night,
So Nana ran to Mrs. Darling in fright.
O is for the Ocean the pirate fell in.
And never came out, Pin Tin-tin-tin.

P is for Peter, who is youth and joy,
He never grew up—our fairy boy.
Q is for Quiet in which the world lay
When the children and Tinker Bell flew on their way.
R is for Redskin, the friend of the boys,
Whose lives they filled with many joys.
S is for Smee—very fierce was he,
He made a poisoned cake, then danced with glee.
T is for Tinker Bell, the sweet little fairy,
Who was always gentle and very airy.
U is for the Underground home full of fun,
Where Lost Boys played from rise to set of sun.
V is for Voice that Tinker Bell had not,
When needing to speak, she flashed a bright dot.
W is for Wendy, the good little wife,
Who tucked the children in cozy and tight,
Then told them stories of love and of life,
At their bed time, night after night.
X is for the Cross Skulls in the flag flying high,
From the mast of the Pirate ship when Peter came nigh.
Said he to the Redskins, the mermaids, and all,
"Now, with your help and Tink's, down that flag we must haul."
Y is for Youth, Peter Pan,
Who said to the Pirate Captain,
"Fight me if you can,"
For I am Youth, that's who I am."
Z is the Citizen, Peter Pan,
Who always gave a helping hand.

The little rhymes were typed for the children while they were carrying out lessons in book-binding in order to make books in which to mount their alphabets, one on a page. Practice in free-hand cutting of letters was gained in making the cover design.

APPROPRIATE WRAPPING OF CHRISTMAS GIFTS

The culmination came just before Christmas, when a lesson in making Christmas cards was given. The cards included original Christmas verses and an appropriate design. Now came the desire to wrap the packages. So they made their own Peter Pan seals, brought their pennies to pay for nice paper, had a lesson in dainty, attractive wrapping of packages, and went forth from the room with fairy-like gifts of their own making and wrapping, to tuck away in hiding for mother's Christmas, but best of all filled with Peter's spirit, expressed in his own words—"I am youth, I am joy."

And to this day, weeks afterward, a child will meet me and say: "Do you believe in faries? Then stand and clap your hands." I clap my hands and reply, "Do you?" He replies: "I believe in Peter Pan."

EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES

1. Primary Learning.
   a. How to organize into groups for the purpose of dramatization.
   b. How to present a story in simple dramatic form.
   c. How to compose rhymes.
   d. How to bind books.
   e. How to make peep shows.
   f. How to decorate and illustrate books.
   g. How to construct a cut-paper frieze.
   h. How to compose songs.
   i. How to wrap Christmas packages attractively.
   j. How to make Christmas cards.
   k. How to make Christmas seals.
2. Associate Learning:
   a. How to use the ruler—measure.
   b. How to tint paper.
   c. How to find material in public library.
   d. How to give a biography.
   e. Appreciation of beauty expressed by illustrators.
   f. Why use rhyme and rhythm in poetry.
   g. Relation of rhyme to musical composition.
   h. Standards for selection of best pieces of work.
   i. Basis for selection of color combination.
   j. Correct listening attitude.

k. Standards for informal dramatization.
l. Skills as related to spelling.
m. Skills as related to reading.

3. Concomitant Learning:
   a. Group coöperation.
   b. Satisfaction in work well done.
   c. Enjoyment of the work of a master mind —Barrie.
   d. Worthy use of leisure.
   e. How to find worthy channels for the expression of the inherent child spirit, the spirit typified by Peter Pan's activities and by his words, "I am youth, I am joy, I am a little bird that has broken from its egg."

ALICE MARY GREER,
Dayton Heights Supplemental School,
Los Angeles, Cal.

THE STORY-TELLING RECITATION[1]

Mr. Wyche tells us, sanely enough, that the way to remember a story is to tell it. Our next lesson in history was on the myths and legends of the Greeks and contained six or eight of those interesting stories with which everyone is supposed to be familiar. There were from twenty-five to forty-five pupils in a class, and the class period was forty-five minutes, half of which was supposed to be devoted to supervised study. The problem was simply to devise a method by which each of forty-five pupils could recite as many stories as possible in twenty-two and a half minutes.

When the assignment was made it was announced that each pupil would have a chance to tell several of the stories in class. The day of the recitation, pupils were paired off so that each individual could face his partner across the aisle. If there were an odd number, three had to work together. The individuals down one row were called "Ones," down the second row "Twos," down the third, "Ones," etc. Each was given a slip of paper and told to put his name on it. Then these directions were given:

"In order that each of you may recite a number of these stories today, Ones and Twos are going to take turns being teacher and pupil. In a minute I will have each Number One close his book and tell his partner a certain story. Each Two will keep his book open to see that his partner makes no mistakes, to correct him if necessary, and to grade him. If he tells the whole story well, give him ten; if he is not prepared on it at all, give zero; if you think he tells it only about half right, give five, etc. Use your own judgment. Put the grade for each recitation on his slip and initial it. After the recitation is finished, and the grade given, both may open their books and study any story not yet recited. Now, are there any questions on what we are to do? Ones, close your books! Twos, open yours to page sixty-nine. Ones, tell the story of the Golden Fleece."

As soon as they were sure that all Ones should recite at the same time, they began in earnest. Sometimes Twos had to prompt; there were discussions and appeals to the book. But since the stories were so universally interesting, and ones which everybody likes to tell, the recitation went on as smoothly and orderly as anyone would wish. After the buzz of the recitation had ceased—

"Has each Two given his pupil a grade and initialed it? Twos, close your books. Ones, open yours to page sixty-seven. Twos, tell the story of Hercules and the Apples of the Hesperides."

In this way each had the opportunity to tell two, three or four stories, and to "teach" as many more.

"Each should now have (three) grades on his slip, with the grader's initials. The

[1] The device here described was developed by the writer with his classes in the Junior High School, East St. Louis, Ill.

last person in each row, collect the slips in order." (Perhaps the grades did not mean much, but they had served to make the whole proceeding more important and had added to the "teachers'" responsibilities.

A further application of this device was employed in supervised study. We had been measuring our rate and comprehension of reading, and seeking to improve in these. It was explained to the class that besides studying our next lesson we were working to increase the rate and quality of our reading.

"Everyone find page 160, the topic on Roman Law. Keep your finger in the place, close your books, and listen. I will tell you when to start and when to stop. In the time allowed learn all you can about that one topic, Roman Law. If you read it clear through, look back to whatever you are not sure about, or read it over. When the time is up, those I indicate will tell their partners as much as they can remember of what they have read. Then, if time allows, their partners may tell them whatever they left out. Is there any question? Ready, start!"

Time was allowed for only the best readers to finish. "Stop! Twos, close your books and tell Ones all you can of what you have read."

Grading here would not be fair, and is not necessary because everyone realizes how valuable the exercise is.

"Is there anyone who has not finished reciting? Then all open your books to page 161, and find the next topic. Is there anyone who has not found the place? Ready, start!"

P. K. Platts,
Peabody College,
Nashville, Tenn.

AS REPORTED

PROGRAM OF THE SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE CONFERENCE

The program for the seventh annual meeting of the National Conference on Educational Method, to be held in Dallas, Texas, has been arranged as follows:

TUESDAY, MARCH 1

The First Baptist Church, 9:30-11:30

Topic: Scientific Research in Supervision

Need for a More Scientific Procedure in Classroom Technique
LOUIS A. PECHSTEIN, Professor of Education, University of Cincinnati

What the Supervisor Can Do to Encourage a Scientific Attitude in the Classroom
ELMA A. NEAL, Director of Elementary Education, San Antonio, Texas

Standards of Supervision
FRED C. AYER, Professor of Education, University of Washington, Seattle

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 2

Luncheon Meeting

Crystal Ball Room, Baker Hotel, 12:00-2:00

Topic: The Value of Scientific Procedure in Teaching and Supervision

The Segregation Problem
MARY MCSKIMMON, Principal, Pierce School, Brookline, Massachusetts

Need of Clearly Defined Objectives in Teaching and Supervision
HERBERT S. WEET, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, New York

The Discovery of Remedial Cases
FRANCES JENKINS, Primary Supervisor, Cincinnati, Ohio

Personality Measurement and Development in the Classroom
W. HARDIN HUGHES, Director of Research and Service, Pasadena, Cal.

All arrangements for the programs and luncheon are in the hands of the President of the Conference, Miss Mabel E. Simpson. In order to assist in completing plans for the luncheon, all those who expect to attend are urged to fill out the form below and send it, together with check, to Miss Simpson in Rochester before February 20. After that date she may be addressed at Adolphus Hotel, Dallas, Texas. Tickets will also be on sale in Dallas from February 27 to March 1 at Convention Headquarters, at the Baker Hotel, and at the Adolphus Hotel. Price, $2.00 each.

BUSINESS MEETINGS

At the close of the Tuesday morning session a short business meeting will be held for the purpose of electing five members of the Board of Directors to serve for a term of three years. Those whose terms expire this year are Directors Horn, Hosic, Kilpatrick, Postell, and Russell.

On Wednesday, immediately following the luncheon program, there will be a meeting of the new Board of Directors.

(Use this form)

Miss Mabel E. Simpson
Education Building
13 Fitzhugh St., South
Rochester, New York

Please send me .... tickets ($2.00 each) for the luncheon meeting of the National Conference on Educational Method, Baker Hotel, Dallas, Texas, March 2, 1927. My check for $ ..... is enclosed.

Name .....

Address .....

.....

A COMMISSION ON THE EQUITY OF TEACHER PLACEMENT

The National Society of College Teachers of Education has appointed a Commission to deal with complaints arising out of the relations of teachers to appointment bureaus and agencies. Cases frequently arise in which either the teacher believes that an agency claims a fee which is not warranted by the services which it has performed, or in which the agency feels that the teacher has not lived up to his contract. For such complaints there obviously should be a tribunal of some sort before which they could be heard. The newly appointed Commission undertakes to receive complaints of alleged unfair treatment on the part of teachers' agencies from teachers, supervisors, principals, superintendents or other school officers, or complaints from teachers' agencies concerning alleged violations of contracts. The Commission will investigate such complaints and endeavor to ascertain the facts by obtaining statements from the parties to the controversy and from other first-hand observers. If it is possible, the Commission will formulate an opinion on the equity of the case in accordance with professional ethics and will report its findings to the National Society of College Teachers of Education with a view to their publication.

The Commission hopes also to engage in supplementary investigations to ascertain the general facts about teacher placement with a view to arriving at principles that may be agreed upon by all concerned and to disseminating information as to these facts and principles.

The National Association of Teachers Agencies has already adopted a code of ethics to cover dealings between teachers and agencies. The Commission of the National Society of College Teachers of Education will seek the coöperation of this association in formulating a set of principles upon which both can agree.

The members of the Commission are: Frank M. Freeman, Chairman, University of Chicago; J. B. Edmonson, School of Education, University of Michigan; and J. W. Withers, School of Education, New York University. Correspondence may be addressed to the chairman or to either of the other members of the Commission. Upon application a blank will be sent on which a formal statement may be made.

PRACTICAL HELP FOR TEACHERS

We are indebted to Mrs. Margaret S. Ferrill, of the public schools of Macon, Georgia, for information as to how she assists her teachers through practical faculty meetings and professional study. A sample outline as discussed recently by her group runs as follows:

FOR TEACHER GUIDANCE IN FORMING BONDS

1. Determine bonds to be built.
   a. Responses wanted.
   b. Stimuli provided.
2. Discover related responses already learned.
3. Pass from bonds already formed to new bonds, introducing but one difficulty at a time.
   a. Method:
      (1) Ideal method—tandem.
      (2) From sensori-motor to high-level bonds.
      (3) Begin at the bottom, go slow, be thorough.
   b. Relation of bonds to each other.
      (1) Simple and single.
      (2) In series.
      (3) In trunk line.
      (4) In inclusive units.
   c. Order of fixing bonds.
      (1) The easiest and most interesting.
      (2) The most frequently used.
      (3) Those that prepare for greatest number of other bonds-to-be.
4. Readiness: Supply a motive that will flush the nerve cells with energy.

a. Sources of readiness.
   (1) Instincts common to all.
   (2) Abilities peculiar to each.
   (3) Old habits.
b. Factors operating for readiness.
   (1) Environment.
   (2) Bodily and mental condition of learner.
   (3) Personality of teacher.
   (4) A suitable task.
   (5) A suitable special stimulus.
   (6) A vision of a happy result.

5. Exercise:
   a. See that connection is clear through.
   b. Give guidance that is positive, definite, detailed.
   c. Remove pitfalls.
   d. Practice as learner will perform.
   e. Get correct response.
   f. Drill to make bond permanent.
6. Effect: Make result satisfying (or, if necessary, annoying) to the learner.
7. Test essential bonds.
   a. Check work.
   b. Apply remedial measures.

Mrs. Ferrill writes that all of the teachers of the schools of Macon have access to the *Journal of Educational Method* and that from time to time certain articles bearing upon some definite line of endeavor are assigned for reading and discussion. She feels that one of the greatest needs of teachers is for means of self-help and check-up on improvement.

THE RADIO AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The public schools of Atlanta have for some months been presenting programs over the radio regularly, under the general direction of Miss Mary W. Postell, Assistant Superintendent in charge of elementary schools. Broadcasting takes place twice each school day—in the morning from 10:30 to 11:00 and in the evening from 6:00 to 6:20. Broadcasting station WSB, Biltmore Hotel of Atlanta, is used. The Monday programs are especially arranged for the fifth and sixth grades; the Tuesday and Thursday programs are for the junior and senior high schools; on Wednesday the programs are for the third and fourth grades of the elementary school, and on Friday for the kindergarten and primary children. The Twilight programs parallel as far as possible the morning programs.

Among the purposes aimed at are: to give additional opportunities for developing appreciation of the best in music, and to train children to listen critically. One means used to accomplish these purposes has been Music Memory contests. Recently the same principle has been extended to the field of literature by means of radio book contests. For example, in January the fifth and sixth grades were invited to listen to characterizations taken from *Robin Hood, Two Little Confederates, Black Beauty, Tom Sawyer, Pollyanna, Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch, Call of the Wild, Peter Pan, Heidi,* and *Robinson Crusoe.* Time was allowed after each impersonation for the children to write the name of the character impersonated, the title of the book, and the name of the author. An advance announcement gave directions as to how the contest would be carried on.

Samples of radio programs that have been broadcasted will make clear the idea. It seems to be one that might well be widely acted upon.

ATLANTA PUBLIC SCHOOLS' RADIO PROGRAM
10:30-11:00 A.M.

October 18 Monday	Health Crusade—Miss Mary Dickenson
	Piano Solos—Mrs. Thad Morrison, Chairman, Fifth District Georgia Federation of Music Clubs
	To Spring—Grieg
	Arabesque—Schumann
	(For 5th and 6th Grades.)

October 19 Tuesday — The Children of the Near East—Dr. A. M. Brodie
(For the 6th Grades, Senior Red Cross officers in all schools, and History Classes.

October 20 Wednesday — Health Crusade—Miss Ruby Busha
Miss Helen Scharb—Pianist
Spring Song—Mendelssohn
Minuet in G—Beethoven
(For 3rd and 4th Grades.)

October 21 Thursday — Community Service—Mr. Burr Blackburn
(For Community Civics Classes and 6th Grades.)

October 22 Friday — Junior Health Crusade—Miss Mary Dickenson
Health Songs — First Grade, Williams Street School
Miss Ruby Smith, Teacher
(For Kindergarten, First and Second Grades.)

TWILIGHT PROGRAM
6:00-6:20 P.M.

October 18 Monday — What the Health Crusade has meant from a Physical and Moral Standpoint — Mrs. Webb

October 19 Tuesday — The Little Theatre Guild Movement—Mr. M. H. Davis, Boys' High School

October 20 Wednesday — Story Telling—Miss Carolyn Cobb

October 21 Thursday — Modern Developments in Chemistry—Mr. T. W. Clift, Tech High School

October 22 Friday — Visual Education in the Public Schools—Mr. E. R. Enlow
10:30-11:00 A.M.

November 1 Monday — A Journey into Orchestra Land—Miss Helen Knox Spain, Librarian of Atlanta. Symphony Orchestra String Ensemble furnished by Morgan Stephens School of Music
(For 5th and 6th Grades.)

November 2 Tuesday — A Sight-seeing Tour Through the Northern Section of the City of Atlanta—Sponsored by Geography Teachers for pupils of the 7th grade, O'Keefe Junior High School
(For Geography and History Classes.)

November 3 Wednesday — Reading—Mrs. Robert Blackburn
Haydn Quartet in D Major played by String Quartet under direction of Miss Mary Douglas
(For 3rd and 4th Grades.)

November 4 Thursday — A Sight-seeing Tour Through the Southeastern Section of the City of Atlanta—Sponsored by Geography teachers and pupils of the 7th grade, O'Keefe Junior High
(For Geography and History classes.)

November 5 Friday — Reading—Miss Carolyn Cobb
Vocal Solos—Miss Arienne Thrasher
The Big Brown Bear
Rock-a-bye-baby
Slumber Boat
Billy Buzz
(For Kindergarten, First and Second Grades)

TWILIGHT PROGRAM
6:00-6:20 P.M.

November 1 Monday — Some Georgia Birds—Mr. C. R. Whittaker

November 2 Tuesday — Peculiar Musical Instruments—Mr. Robert P. Horney

November 3 Wednesday — The Good Samaritan Clinic and its Work among the Pupils of the Atlanta Public Schools—Miss Ruby Falls, Visiting Nurse

November 4 Thursday — "A Thing of Beauty is a Joy Forever" — Miss Mary Williams

November 5 Friday — Radio in the Schools—Miss Mary W. Postell, Assistant Superintendent, in Charge of Elementary Schools

WILLIS A. SUTTON,
SUPT. PUBLIC SCHOOLS

HELPS IN NATURE STUDY

The National Association of Audubon Societies, organized for the protection of wild birds and animals, wishes it to be known that the society is in a position to extend aid to teachers who would like to secure colored pictures of birds and carefully prepared literature for use by their pupils.

The society is not a commercial organization and its purpose as regards the schools is to help the cause of bird study. The plan proposed is that the teacher form a Junior Audubon Club and have from time to time a few lessons about the common birds of North America. Each member of such a society contributes a fee of ten cents, in return for which he receives a set of six colored pictures of our common birds made by leading artists, and also six leaflets telling how birds make their nests, what they eat, where they go in the winter, what their enemies are, and many other facts of interest. With each leaflet there is also an outline drawing which the pupil may fill in by copying from the colored plate. Each child receives an Audubon button in color, which is a badge of membership in the club. For those who may desire to continue this bird study plan from year to year, a new set of pictures, leaflets, and buttons is provided.

During the present year the association is in a position to supply 350,000 children with sets of leaflets. When these are exhausted it will be impossible to supply others this year unless additional funds are contributed by those who support the work. Inquiries may be addressed to T. Gilbert Pearson, President of the National Association of Audubon Societies, 197 Broadway, New York City.

THE READER'S GUIDE

APPLYING THE PSYCHOLOGY OF READING

Something of what Thorndike did for the teaching of arithmetic, Brooks has now done for the teaching of reading.[1] He has organized existing knowledge as to the processes of reading and of learning to read in a clear and simple treatment, all of which will readily be understood and used by the classroom teacher. Beginners will still need such a book as Stone's to help them plan their daily work, but to those who have mastered the conventional technique this new book will come as a powerful stimulus to advance to a more consciously scientific procedure. The author's tables of reading deficiencies and the appropriate remedies are alone worth the cost of the whole work. It is gratifying to note that both silent and oral reading are dealt with. Problems for study are appended to each chapter and there is an excellent selected list of references at the close.

MAKING HISTORY GRAPHIC

Knowlton might well have called his little book, "Making History at Least Partly Understandable to Boys and Girls."[2] Every test that has been applied has shown that school children carry away very little accurate and usable knowledge from the hundreds of pages of textbook history that they read. Their experience simply does not enable them to imagine the situations that are called to their attention. A method of aiding them to do so is illustrated in this book, which is made up mainly of full-page reproductions, in colors, of the actual work of pupils in the Lincoln School. Dr. Knowlton has added sufficient comment to make each attempt clear and has supplied a brief exposition of the theory underlying the whole experiment. This is a notable contribution to method and should be widely known.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

The all too meager literature of the newer industrial arts receives a welcome addition in Miss Wilson's work for the teachers of primary grades.[3] The treatment is topical, no attempt being made to arrange the suggestions by grades. Eleven types of expression are presented: through paper tearing and cutting; mounting and pasting; sandtables; sticks, pegs, and lentils; folders and booklets; paper construction; clay modeling; pottery; textile weaving; basketry; and thin wood. Each chapter is copiously illustrated and additional readings are suggested. This is not a work on the theory of industrial arts but on how to carry on the various activities that are possible.

WHAT TO TEACH IN ARITHMETIC

The movement for economy of time in education that was fostered by the National Society for the Study of Education set strongly toward the omission from courses of study of those parts of subjects for which a positive case could not be made out. Jessup's report, based upon the results of a question sheet sent to school superintendents, recommended the dropping of a number of topics still commonly taught.

[1] *The Applied Psychology of Reading.* By Fowler D. Brooks. New York: Appleton, 1926.
[2] *Making History Graphic.* By Daniel C. Knowlton. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926.
[3] *Primary Industrial Arts.* By Della F. Wilson. Peoria, Ill.: Manual Arts Press, 1926.

Meanwhile the scientific approach to curriculum revision was slowly developing and one notable aspect of this was social inquiry to determine what parts of school subjects are most worth while teaching. Arithmetic was thus examined by Professor G. M. Wilson and others, and Dr. Wilson has now brought together in a brief monograph the facts so far ascertained.[4] These are presented under such headings as: the frequencies with which fundamental processes are used, the relative difficulty of these processes, kinds of arithmetic, and new courses of study. The facts are commented upon throughout in such a way as to set forth the writer's own conclusions and provide actual guidance for those preparing courses of study or editing textbooks.

Dr. Wilson finds substantial agreement upon certain broad outlines of the treatment of arithmetic but much need of further investigation to determine details, especially details as to appropriate methods and grade placement. This recognition that where a thing should be taught depends largely on how it is to be taught seems to the reviewer a very important principle, worthy of much wider attention than it has received.

This monograph as a whole offers a great deal of very valuable material in a small space. With the aid of the bibliography appended, the student or committee member can master all that is now known with regard to the problem discussed.

SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

WHAT TO TEACH IN MATHEMATICS

The *Teachers College Record* for December, 1926, contains a series of three articles setting forth present-day conceptions of courses of study in arithmetic for the elementary school, mathematics for the junior high school, and mathematics for the senior high school. In dealing with the problem of the elementary school curriculum in arithmetic, Professor Upton compares the older practices with the new, which are based upon investigations of actual social needs. He points out that only very simple operations with whole numbers are required; that it is extremely difficult to find real problems in fractions to cover anything like the ground that has formerly been included; and that decimals in practical life are gradually taking the place of common fractions. On the other hand, certain topics need attention that have hitherto been neglected. Among these are life insurance, the work of building and loan associations, and buying on the installment plan. In illustrating the latter, he shows, for example, that the deferred payment plan may easily result in the purchaser's paying 43 per cent interest on the actual amount of his purchase. The article concludes with a statement of principles in accordance with which the topics suggested may be adapted to the work of slow, normal, and gifted pupils.

In writing of the junior high school, Dr. Clark adopts the form of a report of a series of conferences participated in by a high school principal, certain professors of education, teachers of mathematics, and a member of the Board of Education. In this way he sets forth the aims of junior high school mathematics and suggests somewhat of the subject matter that should be employed.

Professor Reeve writes of the purpose of senior high school mathematics, including elementary algebra, plane and solid geometry, plane and spherical trigonometry, and advanced algebra. He discusses also the place of alternative courses planned for those looking forward

[4] *What Arithmetic Shall We Teach?* By Guy M. Wilson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926.

to vocations involving the use of the subject. He includes in his article a complete outline of the work of the eleventh grade.

A FORECAST OF ENGLISH TEACHING

The address of the President of the National Council of Teachers of English on "English Teaching Faces the Future" was delivered by Professor Leonard of the University of Wisconsin and is published in full in the *English Journal* for January. The speaker contrasted the opposing tendencies in English teaching, namely, that toward emphasis on accuracy on the one hand, and toward fluency on the other. He sought to show how far teachers should be committed to each of these two policies and pointed out that what must come first is "thought about experience, and its organization to meet social needs. . . . The first task in dealing with subject matter is intelligently digesting our raw material of sensation and idea, and then skilfully adapting our thought to men's passions and prepossessions so that what we say may gain entrance to their minds."

Dr. Leonard feels that the next few years will show a great development in the field of scientific study of English problems and the development of objective measurements. We should do well, meanwhile, to avoid placing the responsibility for the entire ethical, æsthetic, and social salvation of all pupils upon the English class.

AN EXPERIMENT IN SPELLING

Because of the method of coöperation employed rather than the results obtained, the account of an experiment in which the Horn-Ashbaugh Speller was contrasted with local spelling methods in the Chicago schools is worth reporting. The account is presented by Mr. Lentz of the Chicago Normal College, and appears in the *Chicago Schools Journal* for December, 1926.

Seven schools took part in the experiment, two of them attempting to discover whether the expense of putting textbooks into the hands of the pupils is justified, two others to determine the importance of the method in the teaching of spelling presented by Messrs. Horn and Ashbaugh, and the remainder to compare the effectiveness of the Horn-Ashbaugh system of spelling with that in common use in the Chicago schools. The writer recounts the steps in the experiment, including the testing of results, and concludes that so far as results of the tests would indicate, there was no advantage in using one system rather than the other. He thinks probably the two systems were more alike than was realized when the experiment was proposed. The outcome does not show whether it is economical to place textbooks in the hands of the pupils or not.

A PROGRAM IN SILENT READING

In 1923 the schools of San Antonio, Texas, were reorganized on the 5-3-3 plan and the responsibility for training pupils in the so-called tool subjects was placed upon the first five grades. Because of its importance, reading was given special attention. An account of how a program in silent reading was organized and of how the work of the children was improved appears in the *Elementary School Journal* for December, 1926, by Miss Neal and Miss Foster, the directors of elementary education in San Antonio. The account states that five methods were chosen for special emphasis, namely: (1) finding, by skimming, answers to fact questions given before reading; (2) finding answers to fact questions given after reading; (3) finding answers to questions that require the organization of the thought of several sentences, paragraphs, or even pages; (4) finding titles to paragraphs; and (5) outlining.

Committees were appointed to devise

means of developing each of these methods. The Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale was administered at the end of the first and second terms of 1924-25 and 1925-26. The results indicated a gain of one full point on the scale. Specific illustrations make clear the procedures that were followed in teaching.

READINESS OF PUPILS TO UNDERTAKE READING UPON ENTRANCE TO FIRST GRADE

A committee of the International Kindergarten Union, under the chairmanship of Miss Margaret C. Holmes, has completed a nation-wide investigation of the fitness of pupils entering the first grade to receive instruction in reading. Five hundred and sixty teachers coöperated in the investigations, answers being received to the following questions:

1. Do you feel that you are expected to teach some children to read before they are ready?
2. How many pupils in your first grade in September, 1925? How many of these were beginners? How many were repeaters?
3. How many were not ready to begin reading in September, 1925? The number of these that came from English speaking homes? The number of these that had had kindergarten training?
4. By what evidence did certain children show that they were not ready to be taught reading?
5. What, in your experience, have been some of the results of teaching reading to children who were not "ready"?
6. Would you be in sympathy with a plan for the first few weeks in the first grade in which there was provision for definite ways and means of building interest in reading and preparatory pre-reading experiences instead of an immediate effort to teach reading?

As was perhaps to be expected, a large number of the teachers were in sympathy with the attitudes implied in the questions as framed. The committee reports summaries of the replies received and suggests further investigation to determine whether or not the opinions of the teachers are justified by the facts.

THE NEW BOOKS

The Winston Simplified Dictionary. Advanced Edition. Edited by William D. Lewis, Henry S. Canby, and Thomas K. Brown, Jr. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1926. Pp. xx+1260. Atlas of the World; 3000 illustrations.

The Ten Dreams of Zach Peters. By Hermann Hagedorn. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1927. Pp. 154. Illus.

English for Use. By John H. Beveridge, Belle M. Ryan, and William D. Lewis. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1926. Book One, pp. 384. Book Two, pp. 354. Book Three, pp. 450. Illus.

Good Reading. Primer. By John M. Manly and Sarah E. Griswold; pp. 160. *First Reader.* By John M. Manly and Sarah E. Griswold; pp. 160. *Second Reader.* By John M. Manly, Edith Rickert, and Nina Leubrie; pp. 272. *Third Reader.* By John M. Manly, Edith Rickert, and Nina Leubrie; pp. 288. Illus. New York: Scribner's, 1926.

Readings in Educational Psychology. Edited by Charles E. Skinner, Ira M. Gast, and Harley C. Skinner. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1926. Pp. 833.

Second and Third Grade Manual for *The Child's Own Way Series.* By Marjorie Hardy. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Co., 1926. Pp. 289. $.80.

Motion Pictures for Instruction. By A. P. Hollis. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. 450. Illus. $3.00.

Education and the Individual. By Arthur J. Jones. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. 225. $2.00.

Exploring the Manual Arts. By John F. Friese. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. 412. $2.25.

Child Guidance. By Smiley Blanton and Margaret G. Blanton. New York: Century Co., 1927. Pp. 301. $2.25.

Objective Examination Methods in the Social Studies. By G. M. Ruch. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1926. Pp. 116. $1.60.

Legends of Ancient Rome, from Livy. Edited by Herbert Wilkinson. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. 154.

The Heart of Midlothian. By Sir Walter Scott. Abridged and edited by Archibald Paterson. Modern Readers' Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. 407.

Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Edited by I. L. Kandel. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926.

The University Afield. By Alfred L. Hall-Quest. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. 292. $3.00.

Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas. By John S. Noffsinger. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. 145. $1.50.

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York: Contributions to Education, 1926. No. 213, *The Work of Boards of Education,* by Hans C. Olsen; pp. 170. No. 220, *The Unevenness of the Abilities of Dull and of Bright Children,* by Andrew W. Brown; pp. 112. No. 227, *Job Analysis and Curriculum Construction in the Metal Trades Industry,* by Walter B. Jones; pp. 104. No. 234, *The Organization and Objectives of State Teachers' Associations,* by John Granrud; pp. 71. No. 243, *A Study of Teacher Training in Vermont,* by Robert M. Steele; pp. 111.

J. M. Barrie's Peter Pan and Wendy. Retold by May Byron for Boys and Girls. New York: Scribner's, 1926. Pp. 128. Illus.

Manuscript Writing Lessons. By Stone and Smalley. New York: Scribner's, 1926. Book I; pp. 35. Teacher's Guide, pp. 35.

Horses Now and Long Ago. By Lucy Sprague Mitchell. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1926. Pp. 343. Illus.

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IN PAPER COVERS

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